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UNIVERSAL HISTORY,

BY

THE REV. E. W. WHITAKER,

RECTOR OF ST. MILDRED'S AND ALL SAINTS, CANTERBURY.

IN FOUR VOLUMES.

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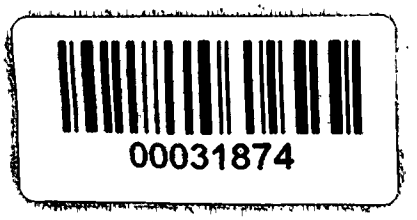

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CHAPTER XI.

The History of Europe during the seventeenth Century.

THE three first years of this century, which proved the three last of the life of Mahomet the third, passed in wars against the rebels in Asia, and against the imperialists in Europe, nor was the sultan successfull in either; while the troubles in which he was engaged enabled the Persians to take some towns from him, and gave rise to mutinies of his own insolent troops: but from these vexations death delivered him in the tenth year of his reign. He was immediately succeeded by the elder of his surviving sons, whose name was Achmet, at that time scarcely fifteen years old. His first act of authority was to remove from the government his grandmother, whose influence had in his father's reign been unbounded. The negociations for peace with the emperour, which had been commenced, were broken off on account of a treacherous attempt of the Turks. The war, therefore, continued with various success two years longer; while the intolerance of the papal clergy causing a revolt in Hungary, the leader of it, named Potskay, at length obtained for himself Transylvania, to be holden independent of Hungary, and that every man throughout this last country should have the free exercise of his religion. Soon after the conclusion of this, a peace was also made between the emperour and the sultan for twenty years. In the mean time the Ottoman arms had been unsuccessfull in Asia: the rebellion in that country had been only weakened, not extinguished; and Sigàla Basha, a very experienced

CHAPTER XI. SEVENTH PERIOD.

Occurrences in the Ottoman empire during the 17th century.

A. D. 1604.

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officer, sent thither, was defeated by the Persians, who supported the rebels, and recovered much territory from the Turks. In Syria, too, the government of Achmet was disturbed by the sanguinary contentions of the bashas of Aleppo and Damascus, the former of which openly rebelled against the authority of the sultan; but was afterwards reduced to ask for pardon, which he received, yet finally was put to death by the command of Achmet. The Persians extending their conquests to the Black Sea, on the advance of a very large Turkish army the Shah thought it prudent to accept of terms of peace, and thus terminated for the present the war between the rival empires. On the other side of the Ottoman dominions, Transylvania and Moldavia were theatres of action for different competitors supported by the emperour or the sultan; while by sea, the Christian gallies gave the Turks no small trouble: and these last, under the plea of his exciting some Albanians to revolt, flayed a Greek patriarch alive. After the conclusion of the peace with Persia, the sultan removing his residence to Adrianople, a mutiny broke out among the janizaries; when the vizir, disgusted at that and other parts of their misconduct, would suffer no more of their order to be made. Achmet having married his eldest daughter to the captain bashaw, the next day exhibited a proof of the highest of the Turks being then no more than partly civilized, in beating the sultana her mother most unmercifully, stabbing her in the cheek, and trampling her under foot, because she had strangled a female slave, who had attracted his affections. Soon after this a dervise attempted to knock him on the head with a stone; but the sultan escaped, and the offender was beheaded. Various attacks were subsequently made on the Ottoman territories, in Europe by the Florentines, in Asia by the Portuguese, Spaniards, and Arabs; and after these had passed, the grand vizir was, through the intrigues of his enemies, brought into disgrace and strangled. The same disturbed state of affairs continued on the side of Transylvania and Moldavia; nor did any thing worth notice occur, but a confirmation of the peace between the imperialists and
A. D. 1617. the Turks, which had been repeatedly infringed, until the decease of Achmet. That prince was succeeded by his younger brother Mustapha, who, resigning himself entirely to the indulgence of his lusts,

was, by the consent of all the great men, removed from his throne to the prison of the seven towers. In his place sultan Othman, or Osman, the son of Achmet, who had been passed over before on account of his youth, being only in the eighth year of his age, was raised to the throne. The Ottoman arms had in the mean time prospered against the Persians, with whom the grand vizir, Ali Basha, concluded, on account of his own want of provisions, a peace. The next year the sultan himself undertook an expedition into Poland, by which he compelled that people to sue for peace, while he returned laden with spoil and captives. Othman having given his ministers much offence, by continuing, contrary to their advice, in a resolution he had taken to pass over into Asia, and excited disgust in the soldiers by other behaviour, these last openly mutinied, slew the vizir and their own aga, first deposed the sultan, restoring to the throne his uncle Mustapha, and finally strangled him. The A. D. 1622. renewed reign of Mustapha seems to have exhibited on the part of the sovereign only imbecility, negligence, and vice; and on that of his subjects disturbances in various parts of the empire. When he had reigned fifteen months, the great men again dethroned him, after which he was, by the command of his successor, soon strangled. A. D. 1623. This successor was his nephew, Amurath the fourth, the second son of Achmet, who had many difficulties to overcome on his accession, especially the insolence of the janizaries, and want of money to satisfy their demands. The Crim Tartars refused the khan appointed by the sultan, whence some hostilities with them; the Cossacks assaulted the empire; and on the side of the territories of the House of Austria, some loss of men was incurred. In Asia, Abaza, basha of Arzerum, having revolted, over-ran Anatolia; while the shah of Persia conquered the city and province of Bagdad. Abaza then suffered a defeat, but was in his turn again victorious; and an attack of the Turks on Bagdad was repulsed: about the same time peace was A. D. 1626. again concluded with the imperialists. A new commander in Asia having at length brought the rebel Abaza in chains to Constantinople, Amurath pardoned the brave captive, and made him beglerbeg of Bosnia. The rebellion being quelled, the siege of Bagdad was again undertaken, and still without success. At court, the profligate

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levity of the sultan himself occasioned great factions, and gave a gloomy appearance to affairs: nor did the next occurrences in Asia amend the prospect. The siege of Bagdad was again attempted, and again raised with great loss: while new revolts took place in Anatolia. The sultan next so narrowly escaped death from a flash of lightning, that the fright impaired his reason. An insurrection of the spahis, by which Amurath was obliged to comply with their requests, afterwards induced him to cut off their ringleaders, and reduce the corps; and by appearing more in publick he kept them in greater awe, while he increased their attachment to him by attending and joining in their exercises. Amurath having resolved to destroy the power of the Druses of Mount Libanus, who, having extended their dominion as far as the cities of Berytus and Sidon, were become very potent, after a struggle succeeded in reducing their power and getting into his hands their emir; whom, after having admitted to his favour, he caused to be put to death. Hostilities with Poland having again taken place, the ill success of the sultan's forces on that side made him desirous of peace, which was accordingly concluded; at which time one-third of Constantinople was destroyed by a fire. Amurath having published a singular edict, permitting the vintners to exercise their trade, and every body to drink wine, determined to take on himself the chief command of the army acting against the Persians. But it was not until the third campaign, that he reduced the great bone of contention between the
A. D. 1637. two empires, the city of Bagdad; which bloody triumph seems to have subdued for some time the spirits of the Persians; and a treaty being concluded with them, by which Bagdad was confirmed to Amurath, he was left at leisure to turn his arms against the Christians. Of these the Venetians in particular had enraged him, by capturing in one of his ports some Barbary corsairs; but this affair was compromised, and ere Amurath could turn his arms against
A. D. 1640. others, death deprived him of his power, and delivered the empire from a most blood-thirsty tyrant, who was fond of killing people with his own hands. No other heir of the Ottoman race remaining but Ibrahim, the brother of the deceased sultan, he was, without opposition, proclaimed emperour in the twenty-third year of his age. The

first care of his government, for his own time seems to have been spent only in voluptuous indulgence, was to reduce the city Asof, at the mouth of the Don, because it afforded a most convenient refuge to the Cossack pirates. The league with the shah was renewed: but Ibrahim, being much enraged at the loss of some vessels taken by the Maltese gallies, made great preparations for war, endeavouring at the same time to prevent all knowledge of where the storm would fall. At length it burst on the island of Candia, in which the Turks took two cities, principally through the indolence of the allies and commanders of the Venetians: but in Dalmatia the republick met with much success. While these military transactions took place, the lascivious sultan being refused the mufti's daughter for his wife, violated her; on which her father formed a conspiracy, which succeeded in deposing the lustfull tyrant, who, after a few days, was strangled. The janizaries then placed on the throne his son A. D. 1648. Mahomet the fourth, but seven years old; who, during his minority, was under the government of his mother, assisted by a council of twelve bashas. These determining to continue the war with the Venetians, had but bad success at sea; while the tranquillity of the capital was much disturbed by quarrels between the janizaries and the spahis. A rebellion, too, broke out at Damascus, and another at Cairo; while the Venetians still maintained their maritime superiority. This ill success led to an union of the janizaries and spahis, who deposing the prime vizir, entered the palace, and carried away a very large sum from the treasury, menacing the sultan himself; who, on the subsidence of the sedition, advanced to the vizirship the basha of Damascus, the famous Kuperli, or Kyuprili: but under this new administration the Turks soon met with another great defeat. A rebellion which broke out in Asia was quickly quelled by the assassination of its chief; while the Venetians met with considerable success in Candia. But on the side of Hungary the Turks reduced Waradin, after which the imperialists were twice defeated. The following year the Venetians added to their triumphs at sea the capture or destruction of the greater part of the Turkish fleet bound to Alexandria. The grand vizir now renewed the war with the Germans, but met with so brave a resistance, that after a destructive

contest of two years he was willing to make peace, and the imperialists having the same inclination, a treaty was concluded. It was about a year after the conclusion of this peace, that a counterfeit Messiah, named Sabbatay Seva, imposed on a great number of the Jews; neither did his imprisonment at Constantinople, nor even his confessing his imposture and turning Mahometan, wean the generality of his followers from their fond conceit. The vizir having settled some differences with Poland, applied himself to a vigorous prosecution of the conquest of Candia. The city of that name had been languidly besieged twenty-two years and eight months already; but now the efforts of the besiegers becoming most strenuous, the exertions of the besieged corresponded with their danger; and never was more determined courage and indefatigable resolution exhibited, than both parties displayed for the two years and four months that now preceded the surrender; the necessity of which was accelerated by the base desertion of the French. Not only the numbers of killed and wounded in this extraordinary siege have been preserved, but those of the assaults and sallies, of the mines sprung, and of barrels of powder, bombs, granadoes, and cannon-balls expended. By the capitulation the garrison, reduced to two thousand five hundred, sickly, ill-accoutered, and half-naked soldiers, embarked with all their arms, provision, and baggage, and such cannon as had been brought thither during the war. After the vizir had arrived at Adrianople from this siege, the peace with Venice was finally adjusted; wine was then, on account of the janizaries, again prohibited; and prince Orkham, one of the brothers of the sultan, was poisoned by order of the last: who, too, offended with the Poles for attacking a tribe of Cossacks who had submitted to him, declared war against Poland; and advancing with an army towards that country, reduced Kaminiec in a very short time; and his troops were making further progress, when embassadors arrived from the Poles with such offers as led immediately to a treaty of peace, but which the states of Poland refused to ratify, while the general of the Cossacks revolted. The sultan, determined to revenge himself, again led his army towards Poland, but was met and defeated with very great loss by John Sobieski, the grand marshal. But the improvement of this victory

was prevented by the death of the Polish king; in whose place, after long deliberation, Sobieski was elected, but, not being supported by the jealous nobles, was unable to face the Turks. Mahomet, fearing that the partiality of the Christian inhabitants of Kaminiec for their brethren in faith might induce them to betray their city to the Poles, removed them beyond the Danube, and supplied their place with a colony of spahis; which precaution taken, he returned to Adrianople, and dedicated the ensuing yeaf to his pleasures. Sobieski was then tempted to attack the Turks in their own territories; but when he had entered Moldavia, he was, by the ability of the Turkish commander, surrounded; and escaping only by a stratagem, not very fair in itself, after doubtfull skirmishes for several days, a peace was concluded, greatly in favour of the Turks, and at length ratified at Constantinople. As soon as the peace was concluded with Poland, the revolt of a tribe of Cossacks to that power brought on a war with Russia; the ill success of the Turks in which rendered the majority of the divan desirous of peace, but the vizir being for the opposite course, the war was continued; in which, though he made himself master of the fortress of Chebrin, his army suffered much more than the Russian troops. This, with the difficulties he saw attending a war in those desert tracks, with a further disappointment he suffered in an attempt to build a fortress at the mouth of the Boristhenes, induced him to agree to a peace. To this measure, too, the hope of extending the Ottoman dominions in another part encouraged him. Emerik Tekeli had, with almost all the inhabitants of that part of Hungary which belonged to the empire, revolted, and applied to Mahomet for assistance. This, after some debate, it was determined to give him; though the truce with the emperour had not expired. An excuse was found for recommencing the war, and Tekeli was declared king of Hungary; after which an army that had marched from Constantinople was placed under the command of the grand vizir, Kara Mustapha; who, harbouring in his breast ambitious projects of his own, undertook, contrary to both the advice of his officers and that of Tekeli the Hungarian, the siege of Vienna; but, after reducing the garrison to extremities, was, by the advance of the imperial army, obliged to relinquish his attempt, and retire in

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confusion and disgrace, with the loss of cannon, stores, booty, and provision for several months. The vizir, to obviate the evidence which might be produced against him in proof of his misconduct, put to death the bashas who had opposed his counsels. The imperialists pursuing their enemies, routed different bodies of them, and recovered several places; while the defeated Turks became so mutinous, that the vizir durst hardly appear; and his real behaviour becoming known to the sultan, an officer arrived at Belgrade with orders to put him to death; and there he was consequently strangled: in his place was substituted Kara Ibrahim Basha. The Venetians feeling themselves insulted by the arrest of their embassadors at the Porte, when they heard of the defeat of the Turks before Vienna, declared war against Mahomet. In the mean time the imperial forces made a great progress in Hungary: and when the Venetians entered on action, they met with considerable success in the Adriatick and its Eastern coast: while Tekeli being treacherously seized by the Turks, and sent in chains to Constantinople, his party all submitted to the emperour of Germany. Great at this time was the success of the Venetians in the Morea; and the disasters suffered in different parts of the empire at last led to the deposition and banishment of Kara Ibrahim, and the appointment of Aneji Solyman Basha in his place. The new vizir released the Hungarian, Tekeli, restored him to his honours, and returned him his effects: then with great diligence raising an army, he led it to stop the progress of the imperialists in Hungary, who had laid siege to Buda. But, notwithstanding repeated attempts to relieve the place, and a very gallant defence by the garrison, it was taken before his face, and he was deserted by a great part of his own army. He having retreated from thence, the imperialists proceeded from capture to capture, and a body of them at length meeting the forces remaining under the vizir's command, defeated them in two engagements. While this passed in Hungary, the king of Poland undertook to attack the Turks through Moldavia, but through his own misconduct was induced to confine his operations to that province, whose prince was friendly to him; and having basely ravaged part of it, was compelled to retreat disgracefully. The Venetians on their side continued to

have success against the Ottomans. The evil tidings which reached Constantinople caused such discontents, that the sultan found himself threatened with deposition; but took measures which prevented the progress of the sedition: still so great was the publick distress, that proposals for peace were made to the emperour, but his terms were found too high. The war proceeding, a battle took place between the grand vizir and the imperialists, in which the army of the former was totally defeated, and the latter reduced all Sclavonia first, and then Transylvania: to these losses was added that of the whole Morea subdued by the Venetians. In the mean time, a sedition broke out in the camp of the vizir, from which that minister was forced to flee; but the army following him to Constantinople, not only obtained his head, but, being joined by the people, deposed Mahomet himself, and raised to the throne his brother Solyman, the second A. D 1687. sultan of that name. With reluctance did this prince take possession of his new dignity; and scarcely had he done so, than the janizaries, on not receiving the pay they demanded, and seeing the vizir of their own raising, Siavus Basha, endeavouring to separate their leaders, rose and put him to death, murdering also his wife and daughter with enormous cruelty, and roved like wild beasts about the city for some days, until by the interposition of the Ulema, or body of the Mahometan law, the tumult was tranquillized, and a few of the mutineers were put to death. Yet, on an order to seize some of their leaders, the janizaries again took arms; when, to avert the storm from his own head, Solyman banished his new grand vizir. Similar disturbances took place in Rumelia, and in Asia, while the imperial army reduced the most important bulwarks of Hungary. The insults and menaces he received in Constantinople, induced Solyman to remove from thence to Adrianople, and the exhausted state of the empire led him to endeavour to obtain from the emperour of Germany a peace on any terms he could; and under the continued success of his enemies Solyman would have agreed to the terms which Leopold demanded, humiliating as they were, had not those perpetual fosterers of discord and disturbers of Europe, the French, interfered, and Lewis the fourteenth by his embassador advised the sultan not to make peace, promising him such advantages as induced

him to think of war only. With the view of more vigorously prosecuting this, he took measures by which the revolts yet subsisting both in Europe and Asia were brought to an end. After this, Solyman declared his intention of personally assuming the command against the imperialists: but his fears did not permit him to advance farther than Sofia; nor did the troops he sent forward meet with any thing but defeat, which reduced him again to declare for peace, but his embassadors not having full powers, the emperour, greatly to his disadvantage, postponed the negociations: for Solyman about the end of the campaign returning to Constantinople, there changed his vizir, and appointed to that office Kyoprili Mustapha Basha, who manifesting a strong inclination to continue the war, in which he was confirmed by the French embassador, that course was resolved on in the divan. The vizir craftily profiting by the superstition of the Mahometans, called on the people in obedience to the Coran to take arms against the infidels, and thus raised such a body of forces as had not been mustered for some time. Having, too, replenished the treasury, and reformed the administration of justice, this able vizir departed for the field, and prevailed with the sultan to remove to Adrianople, as he would be safer there from popular commotions than at the Porte. Rapid was the vizir's success when he entered the field, and after previously taking several other places, he reduced also Belgrade; these triumphs being greatly forwarded by the diversion which the French, little less hostile to Christendom than the Turks, made in Germany. While the vizir proved victorious on the side of Hungary, the Ottomans suffered from the Venetians in both the Morea and Dalmatia. The vizir having returned to Constantinople, and the sultan being, by the advice of his physicians, brought back to the same city, the dropsy, under which he laboured,
A. D. 1691. there produced his death. By the influence of the grand vizir, Achmet, Solyman's younger brother, and the second sultan, too, of that name, was next seated on the throne, and the vizir took him with himself to Adrianople: where having discovered and quashed a plot against his own life, he completed his preparations for the campaign. Having taken the field, his army was met by that of the imperialists, when a battle ensuing, the Turks, after having once

gained the victory, had it snatched from them by the fall of the vizir. On receiving advice of this defeat, and his vizir's death, Achmet appointed Arabaji Ali, basha of Scio, to that important office. But his administration was soon so marked by cruelty, that he was removed, and Tarposchi Ali, basha of Damascus, substituted in his place. Ill success still attending the Ottoman arms, this vizir attempted to renew the negociations for peace, but it cost him his place. To him succeeded Buyukli Mustapha Basha, in the beginning of whose administration great disturbance was raised at Constantinople by a fanatic, but ceased with his exile; though some disasters which quickly followed were thought to have been predicted by him. The only achievement of the new vizir was raising the siege of Belgrade; for his enemies persuading the sultan that he neglected the duties of his office, he was dismissed from it, and the charge of the imperial seal given to Sham Tarabolus Ali Basha, who made but an unsuccessfull campaign against the imperialists; while the Venetians were doing the Ottoman empire much damage. While the Ottomans were engaged in Europe, the Arabs of the desert between Bagdad, Damascus, and Mecca,* not having received for some years the usual stipend of forty thousand gold crowns, paid them to prevent their plundering the caravans, one of their princes, the emir Mahomet, plundered that going to Mecca, and defeated the bashas sent against him: nor was he prevailed on to desist from hostilities but by the united exhortations of the mufti, sheiks, mollas, and other religious. The empire was in this wretched situation, when Achmet, after a reign of four years, was taken from the world. A. D. 1695. Notwithstanding the efforts of the vizir to set him aside, Mustapha, the eldest son of Mahomet the fourth, was raised to the throne. The

* The conduct of these Arabs is a sufficient proof of their independence. But it ought to be remarked, that they inhabit that part of Arabia which it was by the prophet Daniel, ch. xi. v. 41, specifically predicted should escape out of the hands of the Turks: a prophecy which, though in itself one of the most express in the whole code, and in its accomplishment one of the most strongly marked, has, by some interpreters of the present day, been most unadvisedly asserted to have remained hitherto unfulfilled.

new monarch dissembled at first his resentment at the vizir, but having, by the vigour with which he entered on the administration of affairs, acquired the reverence of the people and soldiery, he took occasion, from the first piece of misconduct charged on him, to condemn him to death, filling his office with Elmas Mahomet Basha. The sultan, having himself assumed the command of the army, passed the Danube, and after taking some places, had his troops so roughly handled by a very inferior body of Germans, that though he remained master of the field, he led back his forces towards the Danube, and, after demolishing two unfortified towns, returned to Constantinople. The war against the Venetians was at this time more successfully carried on by means of an African, whose courage and conduct raised him to command, and by whom Chios was recovered from the Venetians, for which service Mezzo Morto, for that was the name he had acquired, was by the sultan appointed high admiral. The next campaign Mustapha compelled the imperialists to raise the siege of Temeswaer, repulsing them afterwards in an attack upon his camp; but, satisfied with this triumph, he returned to Constantinople. In the mean time the czar, Peter the first, of Russia, made himself master of Asof: but the Venetians were prevented from gaining any advantage at sea by the skill of Mezzo Morto. Little was the advantage accruing to the Turks from the two last campaigns; but in that which followed, the abilities of the renowned prince Eugene of Savoy, joined to the misconduct of the vizir Elmas, occasioned such a loss as rendered the people discontented, and peace absolutely necessary. Elmas having fallen in the fatal engagement with the imperialists which took place near Zenta, was succeeded by Amukje Ogli Husseyn Basha, whose disposition was pacifick, and who having, through the chief interpreter, opened negociations with the Christian powers, preliminaries were settled at Constantinople, embassadors from all the princes met at Carlovitz, between Peterwaradin and Belgrade, and after many conferences and disputes, the peace, wished for by the whole world, saith my Author, except the French, was concluded. Still it in fact consisted only of truces; that with the emperour for twenty-five years, that with the Russians for two, and with the Poles for the same. But by this treaty the sultan

was deprived of several provinces, ceded either to the emperour or the Venetians. The sultan having received information of great military preparations making by the Russians, and on further enquiry finding that his grand vizir had caused a false report to be made to him, removed that officer, and appointed in his place Dultaban Mustapha Basha, governour of Bagdad: who, disapproving of the late peace, determined to destroy the mufti, who was a great supporter of it; but his intention being divulged, he fell a victim to the intrigues of the other, and on his death the sultan gave his post to Rami Rehemed Basha. This change of vizir was very ill received by the people of Constantinople, already discontented at the sultan's preferring Adrianople for his place of residence; and this discontent soon broke out in an insurrection, which brought on the deposition of the sultan Mustapha, and the advancement of his brother Achmet to the throne. This event occurred not until after the close of the century; but, as it forms a better pause in the History, is noticed here. A. D. 1704.

Occurrences in Italy during the 17th century.

Clement the eighth survived but a few years in the seventeenth century, during which having by his bulls retrenched the authority usurped by the Jesuits in England, and not patronized them in their disputes with the Dominicans, some of the Order began to assert, that the pope was not infallible, and that it was not an article of the Catholick faith to believe that Clement was the lawfull successor of St. Peter: by which declarations the assertors of the papal supremacy were much alarmed; but whatever fears his holiness himself might have felt on that account were quieted by his death. After attempts to get the celebrated cardinals Baronius and Bellarmine elected, the choice of the college at length fell on Alexander de Medicis, who assumed the name of Leo the eleventh, but held the pontificate not quite a month; and on his decease cardinal Camillo Borghese was chosen, who took the name of Paul the fifth. The prime object of this pontiff was the advancement of the ecclesiastical authority and jurisdiction; his chief contention about which was with the republick of Venice, which he excommunicated for their spirited assertion of their authority within their own territories. But finding they undauntedly opposed him, he made a preparation of temporal to A. D. 1605.

support his spiritual arms, and even instituted, to the surprize of all Italy, a congregation of war.* Yet at length he thought proper to seek for an accommodation through the French embassador, which was accordingly accomplished. The trouble and vexation Paul had received from this affair, gave him a disgust to business, neglecting which he turned his attention to adorning the city, and building palaces for himself and his family. He endeavoured, however, to get the decrees of the council of Trent received in France, but without effect. Being pressed by the king of Spain to pronounce authoritatively on the question so violently agitated between the Dominicans and the Franciscans, concerning the immaculate conception of the Virgin Mary, he evaded giving any formal judgment on the point. But by forbidding all persons to assert, that she was born in original sin, yet permitting them to believe as they pleased, he mitigated the animosities of the disputants. This prelate, who has been accused of countenancing licentiousness among the cardinals, that
A. D. 1621. they might not reproach him with his own crimes, died in the sixteenth year of his pontificate. Cardinal Ludovisio was elected for his successor, and assumed the name of Gregory the fifteenth. His holiness, on the Huguenots taking arms when the edict of Nantz was violated, wrote to the young king of France, exhorting him to destroy and root them out. After shewing himself in various other particulars most strenuous in upholding the Roman apostacy, and having
A. D. 1623. canonized no less than nine new saints, Gregory died in the second year of his pontificate. His place was supplied by cardinal Barberini, under the name of Urban the eighth, who neither neglected the congregation of saints, for he made eight new ones, nor dignifying and enriching his own relations. He built for his family the celebrated palace of Barberini, purchasing for them large estates. He made a promotion of twelve cardinals; and, at the desire of the duke of Urbino, who being near eighty and without male heirs, agreed to resign his fief to the apostolick see before his death in consideration of an hundred thousand crowns, he sent and took possession of that duchy. Urban not being able to prevail with the dukes of Mantua

* This remarkable circumstance in the papal history occurred in 1606.

and Savoy to submit their differences to his arbitration, solicited Lewis the thirteenth to march into Italy: the request was readily granted; and the next year a French army forced the passes of the Alps, and took possession of Susa. But though the French king quickly obliged the duke of Savoy to come to an accommodation with the duke of Mantua, and the Spaniards to retire from before Casal, the pope would not enter with him into a defensive alliance against the House of Austria, nor, on the continuance of the war in Italy, renounce his neutrality. On Lewis being obliged to return to France, an imperial army invaded the duchy of Mantua, and at length took the city. This success of the imperialists exciting the jealousy of the Spaniards, and the duke of Savoy seeing his territories in possession of the French, both these parties began willingly to hearken to proposals of peace, which was at length concluded on condition, among other terms, that the dukes of Savoy and Mantua should be put in possession of their respective territories. In the mean time, his holiness by a consistorial decree, conferred the title of most eminent and most reverend upon the cardinals. The pope having reproved the late conduct of the emperour in Italy, and publickly censured the boundless ambition of the Spaniards, the imperial and Spanish ministers at Rome endeavoured, but fruitlessly, to persuade the cardinals to call a general council to depose him. Urban wishing civilly to remove from Rome some cardinals and prelates, who strove to oblige him to become a party in the war that had broken out in Germany, published a bull for the execution of the decrees of the council of Trent for the residence of bishops, ordering them to reside in their own dioceses and not leave them without an apostolick licence. The duke of Parma having offended the pope and his nephews by declining a marriage in their family, and taking a wife from the House of Medicis, they contrived to involve him in such pecuniary difficulties, as to afford them an opportunity of seizing his duchy of Castro; and, notwithstanding the intercession of the viceroy of Naples and the grand duke of Tuscany, the pope declared him deprived of all his dominions and fiefs, and demanded a passage through the territories of the duke of Modena for an army to carry the war into the duchy of Parma. About this time he made a pro-

motion of cardinals, among whom, at the desire of Richlieu, was the also celebrated Mazarine. He now condemned the works of Jansenius on Grace; who differing on that subject from the book of Molina, the Spanish Jesuit, that society denounced his book to the inquisitor at Rome, and published theses against it; whence the papal clergy were immediately divided into two parties, Jansenists and Molinists; nor could the pope's bull in favour of the latter put an end to the controversy, which has since been warmly revived. The war with the duke of Parma, who was assisted by the Venetians, the grand duke, and the duke of Mantua, lasted two years, much to the disadvantage of his holiness; and gladly did he accept of the mediation of France to bring it to a conclusion, on the restoration of the duchy of Castro to the duke. Urban survived the conclusion of
A. D. 1644. this peace but a few months, dying in the twenty-first year of his pontificate. A contest of six weeks ensued in the conclave, when cardinal Pamphilio was elected pope, and assumed the name of Innocent the tenth. The impious pride of this pontiff is said to have discovered itself by his acceptance of a blasphemous panegyric, in which his honour and authority were extolled (what should not be repeated but to prove how indelible are the predicted characteristicks of the papal power) above those of The Son of God. He soon broke the peace with the duke of Parma, and succeeded at length in extorting from him the duchy of Castro. His holiness manifested, too, much ingratitude to the Barberini, who had greatly contributed to his elevation: he made Camillo, the son of his sister Donna Olympia, a cardinal, and legate of Avignon, instead of Anthony Barberino; and such was his persecution of that family, as to excite the publick compassion for them and draw on the pope a general odium. From this persecution the Barberini retired into France, where cardinal Mazarine took them under his protection, and menaced the pope, if he would not consent to a reconciliation. These menaces being followed by the appearance of a French fleet on the coast of Tuscany, and the capture of several places there belonging to the Spaniards, compelled his holiness to become more lenient to the Barberini, and he was afterwards persuaded to give Mazarine's brother a cardinal's hat; yet that minister received very coldly this

extorted favour. The weight of taxes imposed on the people of Naples and Sicily to support the war against France, having provoked them to rebellion, the duke of Guise then at Rome, and who had some distant pretensions to those kingdoms, by the encouragement of his holiness took the command of the rebels, and when he made a rapid progress, to keep the French from seizing it for themselves, the pope offered the duke the investiture of the kingdoms of both the Sicilies. This the duke declined, but readily accepted Innocent's offer of a loan of money, which his holiness then did not think proper to lend him. The four following years present little else than intrigues in the papal court, whence Donna Olympia suffered a temporary banishment, and was afterwards restored to favour; while even the Barberini returned, and so ingratiated themselves with his holiness, as to participate with his sister in the management of all affairs. These favourites were in danger of being supplanted by the cardinal de Retz, when his holiness was seized with a distemper which put an end to his life in the eleventh year of his pontificate. A. D. 1655. After a contention of eighty days, the conclave united in electing cardinal Chigi, who took the name of Alexander the seventh. Great was the appearance of self-denial which the new pontiff exhibited; and while he sent from Rome Donna Olympia, who had scandalously governed his predecessor, he forbade his own relations to come to that city without his permission. But he soon abated much of his rigour, sent for his nephews and loaded them with wealth and dignities;* laid aside his austere mode of living, and ran into the other extreme of pomp and magnificence. One writer says, that his holiness became quite changed, was envious and jealous of all the world, ridiculously vain, and never spoke a word of truth. A grievous plague now broke forth in the city of Rome, and by it Donna Olympia was cut off: at the same time the pope sent an

* This behaviour of the pontiff may be thought to give support to a report, that having sworn never to receive his relations at Rome, and finding himself much embarrassed by this oath, the Jesuit Pallavicini freed him from his scruples, by advising him to go and meet them out of the city; which ingenious expedient his holiness embraced, and accordingly went to meet them at the distance of a mile from Rome.

extraordinary nuncio to congratulate Christina, queen of Sweden, on her becoming a Papist; and when, on the ceasing of the plague, she arrived at Rome, he assigned her a pension of twelve thousand crowns. Though Alexander declined from the low state of his treasury giving the Venetians any aid in their war against the Turks, at the solicitation of Pallavicini, the Jesuit, on condition of their allowing his society to return to their dominion, he granted the senate a bull for selling some church lands, by which they raised more than a million of ducats. Considerable animosity subsisting between the pope and cardinal Mazarine, the duke of Crequi, the French embassador, had private orders to mortify the pope and his relations; and soon, by the misconduct of some of his retinue, was a quarrel raised, in the course of which both the duke and his duchess were fired on by the city patrol of Corsicans, and one of their footmen killed. The pope and all his family made apologies for the tumult; both the former and the queen of Sweden wrote in excuse of it to Lewis the fourteenth: yet his nuncio was turned out of the French territories, and the duke of Crequi left Rome. The French monarch demanded for the insult very high reparation, and Alexander finding he had none to support him, readily accepted the proffered mediation of the Venetians, and after two futile attempts at an accommodation, one was at last accomplished, very mortifying to the pope. After Alexander had employed his gallies for one season against the Turks without any memorable achievement, he sent three chests of relicks into France, with a bull affirming, that they might, with all confidence, be offered to the veneration of the people: yet, on examination by a physician, one of the skulls, denominated the head of St. Fortunatus, was found to be manufactured of pasteboard: but the physician received a lettre de cachet, forbidding the publication of the discovery on pain of imprisonment.* Some time after so laudably recommending these worthy objects of devotion, his holiness was
A. D. 1667. called from this world. The next election fell on cardinal Rospigliese, who chose the name of Clement the ninth: he sought the

* It merits observation, that this trick was played, and by authority concealed, in the very classick age of France.

affection of his subjects by abolishing some taxes, and taking care that provisions should be plentifull and cheap at Rome. To forward a peace between France and Spain, that the Turks might be more vigorously opposed, he sent an extraordinary legate to each of those courts, and having appointed a plenipotentiary at Aix-la-Chapelle, the treaty was, by his mediation, at last concluded. This pontiff acted with uncommon moderation with regard to his relations; and endeavoured earnestly to re-establish the Roman finances. He complained, too, greatly, of the ignorance of the prelates about his court; but while he was thinking of some means of remedying that evil, he was much affected by the news of the loss of Candia, and fell into apoplexy, of which he died about a month after he was first A. D. 1669. stricken, generally lamented by all ranks. The obstinacy of the factions kept the cardinals in the conclave more than four months; and at length cardinal Emilio Altieri, a decrepid old man, was the object of their choice, who assumed the name of Clement the tenth. Having no near relations of his own, he immediately adopted cardinal Paluzzi as his nephew, who quickly betrayed a disposition to abuse the goodness of his patron, and usurp the whole administration, endeavouring by all means to establish the grandeur of his own family. Meanwhile the pope received a splendid embassy from the king of Spain, who sent the viceroy of Naples as an embassador extraordinary to Rome, to present the white gennet and do obedience for the kingdom of Naples. Altieri, that name had been taken by the cardinal nephew, continued to govern in an arbitrary manner until the death of Clement, which took place in the year in which he A. D. 1676. was celebrating a jubilee in the accustomed manner, and proceeded from natural decay. After seven weeks dispute, the cardinals determined on the election of cardinal Odescalchi, who took the title of Innocent the eleventh. As his character stood very high before his elevation, so no sooner had he taken possession of his dignity, than he began a reformation, in endeavouring to abolish Nepotism, in the finances, in the Divine service, in several abuses in the city, and in reviving modesty and virtue in the religious orders; and to prevent the disturbances arising from the extension of the immunities of embassadors, he entirely abolished the privilege of quarters, which

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then formed asylums in various parts for every criminal. A difference between this pontiff and the king of France on the right of investiture, gave rise to a general assembly of the French clergy, in which they determined on four propositions, which, if supported, would form the great defence of the liberties of the Gallican church; first, that a general council is of superior authority to the pope; and secondly, that neither pope or council has any power over the temporal jurisdiction of kings, who cannot be deposed, or their subjects absolved from their oath of allegiance; thirdly, that the pope's power ought to be limited by the canons, and that he has no authority to decree any thing contrary to the liberties of the Gallican church, or the maxims established by the councils; and lastly, that the decisions of the pope in matters of faith are of authority only with the consent of the universal Church, and therefore, that he is not infallible, but at the head of a council, and agreeing with the same council. The immodesty and luxury of the dress of the Roman women now called on them the censures of the pontiff; but they do not appear to have been more reformed by them, than other women by the reproofs given to their unbecoming dress and demeanour. The sect of the
A. D. 1687. Quietists began at this time also to appear at Rome, originating from one Molinos, a Spanish priest, who reduced all the exercises of religion to simplicity of mind, and abstract devotion by a silent contemplation of the Deity, and withdrawing the soul from all gross images. The Jesuits, however, discovering an immoral tendency in some of his tenets, he was tortured by the Inquisition; and though the pope and some of the cardinals are said to have entertained a good opinion of him, he was condemned to perpetual imprisonment. Innocent had further disputes with Lewis the fourteenth, who haughtily insisted upon his embassador's retaining the unreasonable franchises which the pope justly wished to be abolished, neither were
A. D. 1689. these differences reconciled before the death of this pontiff, who was one of the best that had for a long time filled the papal chair. His decease made way for cardinal Peter Ottoboni, who assumed the name of Alexander the eighth. The French king being by the renewal of his war with the emperour, made desirous of this new pope's favour, immediately restored Avignon, which he had seized

during the last pontificate, and dropt his pretensions to the franchises at Rome. The chief concern of his holiness, however, proved the aggrandizement of his own family; but short was the time he had for promoting it, since after having enjoyed the papacy only fifteen months he died, leaving behind him the character of a drunkard and atheist. The intrigues of the conclave deferred the next election for some months; at length Anthony Pignatelli was chosen, who took the name of Innocent the twelfth. Very unlike his predecessor, this pontiff began his reign by many salutary regulations, and a vigorous inforcement of them. The expense of his own dinner he restrained to eighteen pence: he called the poor his nephews, and supported five thousand of them in the Lateran palace, while he imprisoned or banished all who refused to work. He ordered the sbirri to enter the quarters of the embassadors, and a young man who offered to oppose them to be hanged: a piece of severity fully justified by the number of assassinations, no less than an hundred and eighty, which had taken place during the vacancy of the see. He would, too, have reformed the licentious manners of the regular monks, whose lives were a scandal to Christianity; but, as they were very rich, numerous, and related to several considerable families, he dropt the design by the advice of those who foresaw the impossibility of succeeding. Innocent by his firmness, notwithstanding the menaces of Lewis the fourteenth, forced the French bishops to renounce all that was done in the general assembly of their Church, and to express their contrition in the humblest terms. Though the pope could not prevail on the king of Spain to make peace with France, he induced the duke of Savoy to desert the allies, and conclude a treaty with Lewis the fourteenth, in which was stipulated a neutrality for Italy. Innocent made a considerable addition to his revenue by a jubilee he celebrated, and to which repaired great numbers of both Papists and Protestants, but to the conclusion of which he did not live. After A. D. 1700. violent contentions in the conclave, the choice of the cardinals fell on cardinal John Francis Albani, who took the name of Clement the eleventh. He declared his intention to have justice accurately administered, appeared to act with vigour, and to see with his own eyes instead of those of his ministers. But his accession to the pon-

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tificate bringing the story of Italy to the end of the seventeenth century, this must here be suspended.

Occurrences in France during the 17th century.

As one of the bravest and best officers which Henry the fourth had was marshal Biron, so his fall makes a remarkable event in the prince's reign. His discontent and intrigues were so well known to the baron de Rhosny, that he deemed it his duty to put the king on his guard against him, and to suggest the policy of keeping him employed. The king, therefore, sent him to renew the alliance with the Swiss cantons, in which he fully succeeded: but it was discovered, that he was engaged in a conspiracy against the king. Henry, therefore, sent an order to him to come to court; this the marshal found a plea to decline: but being at length led to believe that the king was not acquainted with his guilt, he repaired to Fontainbleau, where, after several attempts to bring him to a confession of what was already known, he was arrested, conveyed to Paris, tried by the parliament of that city, convicted, condemned, and executed; and one accomplice, the baron de Fontenelle, was broke on the wheel. But such was the extent of the conspiracy, supported by the courts of Spain and Savoy, that the king thought it prudent to suppress great part of the information which he had. Henry observing that the common people in France were miserable from idleness, introduced the silk manufacture into that country. Having sent the marquis of Rhosny into England, a treaty of alliance was there concluded with James the first; and then Henry exerted himself to have the Jesuits again received into his own dominions; and the

A. D. 1602.

same year he granted letters patent for the establishment of Canada, in opposition to the advice of his minister Rhosny. He began, too, the canal of Briare, for joining the Loire and the Seine, and assisted the establishment of a manufactory of chrystal glass. The comfort he received from the success of his schemes for the publick good, did not counterbalance the domestick vexations Henry received from the jealousy, certainly much provoked, and ill-humour of the queen, and a conspiracy formed against him, in which his mistress, the marchioness de Verneuil, and her whole family engaged. But though these criminals were brought to trial and condemned, the king had not firmness sufficient to let their sentences be executed on them.

That other treasons soon succeeded, was then no matter of surprize: in these was implicated the duke of Bouillon, and farther correspondences with Spain were discovered, and the guilty put to death. To put an end to these perpetual attacks on his safety, Henry resolved to march to Sedan, to humble the duke of Bouillon: he first, however, advanced the marquis de Rhosny to the dukedom of Sully. When the king approached Sedan, the duke submitted, and recovering his favour, was left in the same condition in which he found him. The birth of another son, on whom was bestowed the title of the duke of Orleans, afforded great satisfaction to Henry, as fortifying the succession; and he soon united his patrimonial estates, except the principality of Bearn, to the crown of France. He established, too, a manufactory of tapestry, and another of linen: he next renewed his alliance with the United States; after which the queen produced another son, who was styled duke of Anjou. But the king's profligate behaviour in respect to adultery, exhibited an example, after which the manners of his subjects became more and more corrupt. Gaming ran higher than ever; people of all ranks were dissolute beyond expression; duels were frequent, and superstition and atheism clouded the aspect of religion. The ministers which Henry had sent to promote the conclusion of a peace between the Dutch and the Spaniards, succeeded at length in negociating a truce for twelve years. In the mean time Henry had at heart an earnest desire to break the power of the House of Austria; for this he had been saving money, and exacting it with little mercy from his subjects; he had made great military provision, and formed various alliances; but even the pursuit of this great object did not divert him from the most unprincipled indulgence of his insatiable lust. He had laid a plan, and, with a degree of weakness which is scarcely credible, acknowledged to the queen his hope of succeeding in it, for the carrying off the young wife of the prince of Condé; but was happily frustrated in the attempt. Much is said of the presentiment which he seemed to entertain of his own assassination; but whether these reports be true or false, when he was on the very eve of embarking in the great attack he intended, he was assassinated as passing through the streets of Paris in his coach, by Francis Ravillac, A. D. 1609.

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a native of Angoulesme, who denied his having encouragers to the murder, and was tortured to death in a manner most unjustifiable. Thus Henry the fourth, after apostatizing from the truth to gain a crown, fell by the hands of an enthusiast of the very communion into which he had thrown himself. The very evening after the king's death, the parliament of Paris was assembled, and the queen declared regent: afterwards a very numerous council of regency was established; but there was a cabinet council of a very few, in whom the queen, or an Italian named Conchini, soon after the king's death styled marquis of Ancre, to whom she trusted every thing, could confide. Under this government, France continued with many intrigues and dissensions among the great, and much licentiousness among all, until the young king took on himself the government, which he did as soon as he entered into his fourteenth year. Some princes of the blood, at the head of whom was the prince of Condé, having formed a league against the court, a civil war had been prevented by a treaty the queen made with them, in which it was stipulated, that an assembly of the states should be called. This, on the king's coming of age, was accordingly done; but with no other consequence than their sitting some time, and doing nothing. Soon after which the prince of Condé exhibited fresh symptoms of discontent, and published a manifesto, assigning as causes of it, the insolence of the now marshal d'Ancre, the dissipation of the royal treasure, the neglect of discovering the authors of the late king's murder, the violation of the edicts in favour of the Hugonots, and others of less importance. And that prince being joined by the dukes of Longueville, Mayenne, and Bouillon, a civil war was kindled; in the heat of which a double marriage, which had been long in negociation between the courts of France and Spain, took place, and the king of France received as his bride the infanta of Spain, and princess Elizabeth of France was sent as that of the prince of Asturias. The party of the princes was soon strengthened by the junction of the Protestants. The preparations of both parties, however, ended in a treaty; at a meeting to promote which, the princes narrowly escaped a treacherous plot laid to surprize them. Still the articles at length agreed on were in general such as they demanded; and, to his gratification,

the prince of Condé was placed at the head of the council. It was some time before the prince repaired to court, and when he did he performed nothing; but while affecting to have separated from the Protestants, he remained under the influence of the duke of Bouillon; who having in some of their consultations hinted at the possibility of the prince's being placed on the throne on certain conditions, the project came to the ears of the court, and the prince was arrested in the Louvre. On which, as the British embassador withdrew to his own country, so several great men retired from court; while the mob pulled down the house of the marshal d'Ancre; under whose influence several changes were now made in the ministry, and among the rest, secretary Villeroy was succeeded by the bishop of Lucon, afterwards the celebrated cardinal Richlieu. Though the queen-dowager, for the sake of Galigai, D'Ancre's wife, whom she really loved, bore with much of his impertinence, in matters of importance she took better advice, and particularly that of Barbin, comptroller of the finances, and the bishop of Lucon. Under this advice a war was vigorously and successfully begun against the princes; when, most suddenly, the king's favourite, Luynes, so excited his jealousy against D'Ancre, and inflamed his resentment against the queen-dowager for engrossing the regal authority, that he consented to have the marshal arrested; but he, making a show of resistance on that attempt being made, was slain. On this followed a total alteration; not only were the ministers changed, but all the princes were received into favour; yet during these changes, Richlieu, though removed from the secretary's office, kept his place in the council. Luynes prevailed on the king to call an assembly of the notables at Rouen, where the whole of the late revolution was approved of. After the death of the marshal D'Ancre, the queen-mother had been sent to Blois, from whence, after a long course of intrigue, she at length escaped by the interference of the duke d'Espernon. This escape struck the king and his ministers with astonishment, and drew from them violent menaces against the duke d'Espernon; but, by the advice of the duke of Bouillon, a negociation for accommodating matters was set on foot. Luynes advised the recalling the bishop of Lucon, who had been sent from court,

and the king wrote to him with his own hand; and by him a peace was at length made between the queen and her son, to the satisfaction of the court, and with great advantages to the queen and those of her party. Luynes, the favourite, apprehensive of the queen's recovering her influence, set the prince of Condé at liberty; who from gratitude accompanied him to the parliament, where Luynes was received as a duke and peer of France. But the attachment of the prince to him, and the credit which this gave him with the king, excited discontent among the princes and great lords; several of whom going to pay their court to the queen, she appeared to be at the head of a powerfull and well-connected party. This alarming the king, and still more his favourite, and all their attempts to appease the queen having no effect, recourse was at length had to arms. The vigour with which the king in person acted, infused a new spirit into his forces, and he quickly compelled his mother to conclude a peace with him. By private negociation it was stipulated, that the king should demand a cardinal's hat for the bishop of Lucon; and that prelate promised to give his favourite niece to the nephew of Luynes. After this success, Lewis marched into the principality of Bearn, to establish there, where there were no Papists, the papal religion; and left garrisons in the fortresses to support his regulations. Yet the assembly of the Protestants continued sitting at Rochelle, though they had been ordered to disperse, under pain of being declared rebels. Luynes, to ingratiate himself with the clergy and zealous Papists, had, by sowing discord among their chiefs, attempting to bribe some, and menacing others, begun to sap the very foundation of the establishment they had obtained from Henry the fourth. These steps formed only a prelude to the war which Lewis, considering the Protestants as rebels for continuing their assembly at Rochelle, commenced against them; and which having lasted somewhat more than a year, in which time, though many places were taken from the Protestants, the king, who seems himself to have behaved with much personal bravery, lost a number of troops and many eminent officers, was closed by a peace concluded with the duke of Rohan, who was at the head of the Protestants. Soon after the beginning of these hostilities, the favourite, who had obtained for

himself the constable's staff, lost all his honours by death. After the conclusion of the war, a long course of intrigue and jarring interests led to the accomplishment of the queen's wish to have Richlieu admitted into the cabinet council, when the great address he manifested in settling the marriage of the king's youngest sister, Henrietta Maria, with Charles, prince of Wales, though it was violently opposed at the court of Rome, placed him at the head of the administration; where he quickly brought every thing under his own direction; and with malicious craft provoked the Protestants to take up arms, that he might have a plea to charge the rupture on them; while sending the marquis de Cœuvres as embassador extraordinary to the Grisons, he there acted as a general, and putting himself at the head of some troops, drove those of the pope out of the Valteline, and took possession of that country. The non-performance of some of the articles of the last treaty with the Protestants, and the equipment of a squadron to block up Rochelle, led Monsieur de Soubise, brother to the duke of Rohan, to attempt to take or destroy the vessels fitting out, and the civil war was consequently renewed, but quickly closed by the interposition of the British monarch; ending rather to the advantage of the Protestants. Nor did the rupture with Spain, occasioned by the French acting as auxiliaries of the duke of Savoy, nominally against the Genoese, last long. The court of France is represented as being at this time such, that there never was one in which men were more attached to their interests and their vices, or had less tincture of honour, virtue, and religion. The cardinal had raised himself many enemies; but by his superior abilities, and equal freedom from the restraint of principle, triumphed over them all; and took advantage of the discovery of a conspiracy against his person to procure an assignment of a guard, which accompanied him even to court. One of the particulars that marked his administration was, the suppression of the too-powerfull office of constable of France; while under the title of grand master and sur-intendant of navigation, he had that of high admiral conferred on himself. Thus furnished with power, the cardinal steadily pursued two objects; the ruin of the power of the House of Austria, and the humbling of the Protestants. No small step towards the last was made by the reduction

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of Rochelle; the Protestants having, in consequence of a war commenced by the English, and in hopes of assistance from them, again taken arms. In this siege the cardinal himself commanded and manifested by the ability of his military conduct the versatility of his genius. The cardinal now, thinking the importance of the Protestants much lessened, turned his chief attention to the diminution of the power of the House of Austria, and persuaded the king to that expedition into Italy which has been already noticed. After his return from which, the duke of Rohan, who still continued in arms, was so pressed by the royal forces under the king himself, that he thought proper to accept of the conditions offered him, and peace was again concluded, on condition of the Protestants being restored to their estates, the free exercise of their religion, and all the privileges granted them by the edict; but they were compelled to cede their cautionary towns; by which they were deprived of the power of defending themselves in future. The disturbances in the court, where the duke of Orleans, who had lost his first wife, was opposed by his mother in his wish to marry the daughter of the duke of Mantua, though they embroiled the cardinal so far with his old patroness, the queen-mother, as to induce him to beg the king's permission to retire, yet in the end contributed to confirm and increase his power. The duke of Savoy having, in conjunction with the emperour and the king of Spain, renewed the war against the duke of Mantua, the cardinal was sent with the new title of generalissimo into Italy at the head of a powerfull army. Here he exhibited the vigour of his genius, and soon put the king in possession of the whole duchy of Savoy, except the fortress of Montmelian; while by the treaty of Ratisbon, the emperour bound himself to grant the investiture of Mantua to the duke of Nevers; and by the negociations of Julio Mazarine, now first appearing on the theatre of the world in the character of a priest and a politician, (for he appeared some time before in that of a captain of horse,) a convention was made with the Spaniards in Italy. The cardinal having got the better of some other intrigues against him, countenanced by the two queens and the duke of Orleans, having engaged Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, to act against the emperour, obtained Pignerol from the

duke of Savoy, Casal from that of Mantua, and convinced the Spaniards that they had lost their superiority in treaty-making, made no scruple of enforcing his master's authority in his own dominions, and convincing all ranks that things were greatly changed, now that there was an able genius and firm mind at the head of affairs. The queen-mother's dislike to the cardinal again breaking forth, she was put under arrest, but escaped into Flanders. The duke of Orleans retired into Lorrain, which brought a war on the duke of that country, who was at last obliged to make peace with loss of Clermont. During these hostilities the duke of Orleans, at the head of a body of men he had collected, invaded France, with no other success than bringing to the block the marshall duke of Montmorency who had joined him, and being himself compelled to submit to the terms imposed on him. The duke of Lorrain having paid but little regard to the last treaty, his duchy was again invaded, and he, between fraud and force, was obliged to deliver up his capital. After which, thinking he should by the measure obtain some ease to his subjects, he resigned his dominions to his brother; but this last offending the cardinal, all Lorrain was soon reduced, and treated as a province of France. On the first of July this year, Lewis by publick edict directed his geographers to consider their first meridian as passing through the isle of Ferro, the most western of the Canaries. The Protestant princes of Germany, who had for some time been in reality fighting the battles of France, now pressed the cardinal to declare war openly against the emperour, but this he evaded for the present; still they made a new treaty with France. The queen-mother attempted to be reconciled to him, but could not submit to his terms: yet the duke of Orleans returned to court. The superiority of the imperialists and Spaniards in the war in Germany, obliged Lewis to conclude a new treaty with the States General, by which he engaged to declare war immediately against Spain, and the Spaniards having surprized Treves, and cut in pieces the French garrison supplied the cardinal with an excuse for so doing. The termination of this war Richlieu himself did not live to see: it was carried on at first with various fortune, and little to the advantage of France. In the second year of it, the Spaniards having entered

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Picardy, by the advance of an independent corps towards Paris, so alarmed the citizens that they fell into great confusion. The chagrin of the king, added to this, lowered the spirits of the cardinal, and he expressed an intention to resign his office; until, encouraged by an old friend, he again exerted himself, and raised fifty thousand men, the command of which he gave to Monsieur and his brother the count de Soissons, hoping that they would disagree. But they united in a project to have him assassinated; and it was only from a sudden scruple of Monsieur to be concerned in his murder, that he escaped death. The duke of Rohan, for want of pecuniary supplies from the cardinal, who hated him, was obliged to evacuate the Valteline; and while the war was thus pursued on all sides, Richlieu, to gain the attachment of the learned, instituted the French academy of forty members, who were to study to improve and perfect the
A. D. 1637. French language. In the beginning of the following year, Lewis solemnly and superstitiously put his person and kingdom under the protection of the Virgin Mary. The queen-mother made a most submissive application to the cardinal for permission to return to France, and receive a bare support there; but he was implacable: neither was he much more gentle to the reigning queen, though in a state of pregnancy, from which she was delivered by the birth of a son, named Lewis. In the meanwhile, the cardinal's ascendancy over the king was so absolute, that he alone might be justly said to reign; while he spared none that opposed him, but proved his administration the most austere and unrelenting to which the kingdom was ever subject. While the war was proceeding, with various success, but more in favour of France than at the commencement of it, the queen was delivered of another son, to whom was given the title of duke of Anjou. A new favourite of the king's, raised by the cardinal to be master of the horse, and therefore usually termed Monsieur le Grand, viz. Ecuyer, long pursued, with several associates, a project for ruining the cardinal; but in the course of this having treated with the court of Spain, their treason was discovered, the cardinal was reinstated in his ascendancy over the king, which began to be shaken, and the new favourite was put to death. But before this, the minister had persuaded the king to go into Roussillon,

where the siege of Perpignan was formed; but Lewis and Richlieu were both in an ill state of health; and ere the place surrendered, the king set out for Paris, and was afterwards followed by the cardinal, who by slow journies reached that city; in about two months after which, having born his disease, two abscesses on his lungs, with great patience, he died with a serenity that was amazing. A. D. 1641. Some months prior to the cardinal's decease, that of the queen-mother took place. During the same year, the French arms prospered in Germany; and in Piedmont the princes of Savoy, the uncles of the young duke, forsook the party of the Spaniards, and made a treaty with the French; engaging in whose service prince Thomas reduced several places. The king now declared that he meant to make no change in his administration; and cardinal Mazarine, who had been patronized by Richlieu, and through him obtained his hat, was introduced into the cabinet the very day the latter died, and was afterwards by the bishop of Beauvais induced to make a tender of his services to the queen; and this, with the recommendation of the nuncio, was the introduction of that minister. The king, who was sensible of the decline of his health, thought very seriously of settling the government during his son's minority, and at length published a declaration, by which the queen was appointed sole regent, and entrusted with the custody of her children. Monsieur was to be head of the council and lieutenant-general of the kingdom; in case he was absent, his place was to devolve to the prince of Condé, and in the absence of the last, to cardinal Mazarine; and all things were to be determined in the council by a majority of voices. The command of the army was given to the prince's son the duke of Enghien, who was to have under him the marshall L'Hospital. Having taken these steps, the king met his death with great calmness, which took A. D. 1642. place in the forty-second year of his age, and the thirty-third of his reign. Four days after her husband's death, the queen went to the parliament, and gave them hints sufficient to take on themselves authority to confide to her, solely and simply, without the consent of a council, the tutelage of the king, and the regency of his dominions; by which the declaration of the late monarch was, in fact, cancelled. Lewis the fourteenth was now only in the fifth year of his age.

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With the change thus made in the government, Mazarine was so displeased, that he arranged every thing for his return into Italy; but the queen, not wishing to lose him, was advised to offer him whatever he lost by the king's declaration being cancelled; this he accepted, and quickly gained her exclusive confidence. While these occurrences took place at court, various success attended the armies: but on the side of Flanders, the duke of Enghien, then only in his twenty-second year, established his reputation by the total defeat of a superior Spanish army. Some time after this, the justly-celebrated viscount Turenne received a marshall's staff. This great general next took a command under the duke of Enghien in Germany, and they were attended with a course of victories. But while military matters went well on every side but that of Catalonia, at home some disputes arose with the parliament of Paris, who were desirous of taking what they deemed a favourable opportunity for extending their authority, and in these disputes the parliament were gainers; so that it became necessary when money edicts were to be registered, that the king himself should be present in a bed of justice, when by established usage they were registered without opposition. In the mean time the French armies succeeded on every side; and the king being now turned of seven years old, was taken from under female care, and the superintendence of his education was entrusted to the cardinal himself, under whom the marquis of Villeroy was appointed his governour, and the abbé de Beaumont his preceptor; from the last of whom, however, it afterward appeared, he profited but little. Among the foreign conquests next made, was the important capture of the town of Dunkirk, which surrendered to the duke d'Enghien; who, quickly after, by the death of his father, became prince of Condé. In the following year, as the events of the war were not favourable, neither did domestick affairs pass in tranquillity; the parliament affected to cancel or limit edicts, as suited their own views; while the cardinal talked high, but yet complied. The king was seized with the small pox, but recovered. The contests with the parliament, to which the cardinal, sensible of his ignorance of the French constitution, was sometimes too peremptory, at others too compliant, made it more difficult to conclude a good peace; while

the difficulty of raising taxes prevented the war from being pursued with vigour: all circumstances that contributed to render the minister odious. The success of marshall Turenne now compelled the emperour to think earnestly of peace; and the Dutch having already concluded a treaty with the Spaniards, that of Munster was signed between the emperour and the French king, by which the latter gained a vast accession of power and territory, and the great project of Richlieu in reducing the power of the House of Austria in Germany was so far executed. While the war with Spain was continued with some briskness, the assumptions of the parliament grew bolder, and the Parisians siding with them, the measure of barricading the streets was renewed, and the queen retired with the king from Paris; while the opposite parties gained from each other the names of Mazarins and Frondeurs. By the remission of some taxes, and a liberal grant of titles, tranquillity was, for a short time, restored. When the parliament, under pretence of infractions, began to resume their meetings, the royal family again left Paris; and the parliament formally declared the cardinal an enemy to the kingdom. Such was now the situation of affairs, that the concealed chiefs of the malcontents were obliged to declare themselves: the prince of Conti was declared their commander-in-chief, and the dukes of Elbœuf and Bouillon, and the marshall de la Mothe, generals; but the soul of the party was the coadjutor to the archbishop of Paris, afterwards famous by the title of the cardinal de Retz; whose abilities were uncommon, and his vices prodigious. The parliament taxed themselves to raise an army, and *in six weeks ten times as much money was raised and squandered, as the taxes which had afforded the first pretence for these quarrels.* After the example set by that of Paris, other parliaments and provinces revolted, and all the kingdom was in confusion. The whole conduct of the malcontents was wild and ridiculous, and they found themselves under the necessity of making peace; and a treaty was concluded, by which neither party secured their object. While the internal disturbances were raging, the war with Spain went on with little vigour. When the cardinal returned with the king and his mother to Paris, having incurred the publick hatred while sincerely attached

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to the publick service, he attached himself entirely to his own interest, while the state and the royal family suffered extremely. But suddenly a new scene opened; an attempt to assassinate the prince of Condé having been made by some of the many enemies his conduct had raised, he so strongly persecuted the Frondeurs for it, that they concluded his destruction to be their only safety. The coadjutor, therefore, through a third person proposed this to the queen and cardinal; who consenting to it, a conjunction was produced between the court and the Frondeurs, and the princes of Condé and Conti, and the duke of Longueville were arrested. By their imprisonment a new civil war was raised; and the intrigues of a few women continued to be in reality the sources of the disturbances which distracted the state. After having quelled some insurrections in the provinces, and returned to Paris, such was the situation of affairs, that the cardinal deemed it prudent to retire from that city; and repairing to the army opposed to the archduke Leopold, under whom the intrigues of marshall Turenne had brought him to serve against his country, was present at an engagement, in which the enemy was entirely defeated; which was the only side on which the French were successfull that campaign. But even this success increased not his popularity at Paris; from whence he was again compelled to retire, and set the princes at liberty: an event which produced only new intrigues; while the queen was by the Parisian mob treated with that unfeeling insolence which has ever rendered them most execrable. The coadjutor, who had been the great instrument in expelling the cardinal, finding himself slighted by the prince of Condé, and being assured of an hat by Mazarine, intrigued as earnestly for his recall as he had done for his expulsion. At length the king was declared out of his minority, Monsieur Chateauneuf was made prime minister, and the prince of Condé, by the persuasion of his sister the duchess of Longueville, joined by several dukes and others, again took arms; and during this embarrassed state of affairs the queen invited the cardinal to rejoin the court, then at Poictiers; at which the parliament were so enraged, that they proscribed him, and offered a reward of fifty thousand crowns for him alive or dead: he however, under a powerfull escort, joined the court, and prevailed

with the duke of Bouillon and his brother the marshall Turenne, to leave the malcontents. Hostilities now became serious between the two parties, the armies of which were led by the two most able commanders of France, Condé and Turenne; and so much reduced was the situation of the court, that apparently the admirable conduct of marshall Turenne saved the king from the hands of the malcontents. The king transferred the parliament of Paris to Pontoise, where he himself was: here those who obeyed the order demanded the dismission of the cardinal, which was granted; and he setting out for Sedan, left the affairs of state in the hands of prince Thomas of Savoy, and the army in those of marshall Turenne. The princes having lost the affections of the citizens of Paris by a sedition ascribed to them, in which the mob, as usual, had been the instruments of a massacre, after some operations in the neighbourhood of that city, in which Turenne over-reached the duke of Lorrain, who, at the request of the malcontents, had entered France, and the prince of Condé, the last grew weary of continuing at Paris, and quitted it to throw himself into the arms of the Spaniards; when the king entered his capital in triumph. The Bastile was immediately surrendered; and at a bed of justice holden by the king, among other declarations verified by the parliament was one, prohibiting them from meddling in future with affairs of state. When the coadjutor, now cardinal de Retz, appeared at court, he was arrested, and sent prisoner to Vincennes; and thus ended the faction of the Frondeurs. During these civil dissentions the arms of Spain prevailed on all sides; they even took Dunkirk: yet marshall Turenne prevented any of the enemy from wintering in France; and Bar le Duc, and several other places which the prince of Condé had taken, were recovered. After which the A. D. 1656. queen, to prove that the royal authority was really re-established, sent for the cardinal to Paris, and the remains of the rebellion were extinguished in all parts of the country by negociation or by force; and in order to secure the permanence of the royal authority, the cardinal renewed the alliance with the Swiss Cantons. But no testimony of either gratitude or justice was rendered to the reformed in France, who, in all these quarrels, had adhered inviolably to the crown. In Catalonia and Italy the Spaniards had, this campaign, the advantage;

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but the chief stress of the war was in the Low Countries, where the prince of Condé had the title of generalissimo of his Catholick majesty's armies, but had not much attention paid to his advice; which, with his being opposed by Turenne, prevented his making so much progress as the French. The prince of Conti now sought not only reconciliation but alliance with the cardinal; and, to the great vexation of his brother of Condé, married one of Mazarine's nieces. Still the parliament passed a sentence of death on the prince of Condé as a traitor, including under it all his adherents; and on his part the prince laid a scheme for the assassination of the cardinal. The parliament attempting to revive the old spirit, on their once holding an extraordinary assembly, the king suddenly entered it in his hunting dress, and seating himself in the first president's chair, told them, that they were to hold no extraordinary assembly but by his permission: this spirited conduct did more than all his edicts, and they forbore both to assemble and remonstrate. Both in Catalonia and the Low Countries the French arms had now the advantage: but Mazarine, who now governed absolutely, and behaved insolently, scarcely deigning to mention the name of his sovereign in any foreign transaction, suffered the commerce, marine, and finances of France to decline. The king himself took the field this campaign, with an army under the command of Turenne, who pursued his conquests without interruption; while Mazarine strengthened himself against the Spaniards by an alliance with the English protector, Cromwell. Marshall Turenne being compelled to raise the siege of Valenciennes, made so fine a retreat before his victorious enemy as raised his military reputation to the highest pitch. An offensive and defensive alliance against Spain being concluded with Cromwell, after an attempt on Cambray, foiled by the very able conduct of the prince of Condé, Turenne was joined by the English auxiliaries, the king and the cardinal; and continued successfull to the end of the campaign: nor were the French less prosperous in Catalonia. The next year Dunkirk fell to the united forces of France and England, directed by the abilities of Turenne, while the Spanish army, which attempted to raise the siege, was, after a defeat, saved by those of the prince of Condé. The king's illness, which was highly dangerous,

interrupted the course of the marshall's conquests, but he afterwards renewed it, and reduced several other places during the campaign. The king of Spain, dreading the further conquests of Turenne, now wished for peace; the queen of France did the same from the better motive of stopping the effusion of blood. But the cardinal had an object of his own, in pursuit of which he hinted to the Spanish minister, that now he must decide for either a marriage between Lewis and the infanta, or interminable war. In consequence of this such proposals were made on the part of Spain, as Mazarine accepted; a conference between the two ministers was holden in the Pyrenees, and a treaty was settled, one article of which was, the king's marriage to the infanta, another the restitution of conquests on both sides, and a third contained the terms granted to the prince of Condé; but the whole treaty consisted of one hundred and twenty-four. Thus ended a war of one-and-twenty years, by which France acquired the provinces of Alsace, Roussillon, Artois, and Flanders; and the king was married some months after to the infanta. This A. D 1660. negociation was the last material transaction of the cardinal's administration: his decease, which occurred in the following year, suffered Lewis to become a sovereign, and wield the sceptre as well as wear the diadem. The king, determined never to submit to an authority like that from which he was now released, fixed the several departments of his ministers, beyond which they were not to act; gave separate hours of audience to each, put the finances on the best footing, restored discipline among the troops, and blended all the pleasures of a court with a regular attention to the business of the nation. Colbert, a man bred to business under Mazarine, was made comptroller-general of the finances, Le Tellier was secretary of state for domestick, and Louvois for foreign affairs. A dispute about precedence with the Spanish embassador at London, gave Lewis an opportunity of manifesting his decided spirit, and betrayed the weakness of Spain: neither while supporting the dignity did he neglect to augment the power of his crown. Such was Colbert's management of the finances, that the king was enabled to purchase Dunkirk from the English monarch. Lewis deemed it policy to assist the emperour against the Turks, and he, privately, did the same to the Portuguese

against the Spaniards. He negociated so ably with the duke of Lorrain, himself a very enterprising prince, as to purchase the reversion of his duchy; and during the war between England and Holland he increased the French marine from a few frigates to thirty ships of the line. Though before his marriage Lewis had renounced all pretensions to the Spanish succession, he scrupled not on the death of Philip the fourth to claim a large portion of his dominions in right of the queen of France; and this claim he immediately supported, bursting at the head of an army into the Netherlands with Turenne under him, and reducing several places, and above all, Lisle. The next year, having made some offers to Spain which were not immediately accepted, Lewis sent the prince of Condé into Franche Comté, who over-ran it in ten days. This compelled Spain to consent to Lewis's retaining his conquests in the Low Countries, on condition of his restoring Franche Comté, and a peace was accordingly concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle. The king then turned his attention to the arts of peace. His sea-ports he fortified and filled with shipping. He fitted out sixty large men of war; established new colonies in Asia, Africa, and America. The arts were assiduously cultivated, and painting and architecture rose, among a people naturally ingenious, to great excellence; and learning flourished in all its branches. The republick of the United Provinces had now, by prudence, industry, and frugality, risen to an high pitch of grandeur: Amsterdam was become the emporium of Europe, and the richest city in it; and the Commonwealth was considered as of important weight in the scale of power. Lewis suspected, that these proud merchants proposed to set bounds to his ambition, and he watched every motion of the prince of Orange; and, knowing that the chief authority was in the hands of the inveterate enemies of his House, he sought every opportunity of breaking with the Dutch; and by the duchess of Orleans detached that profligate and unprincipled monarch, Charles the second of England, from the triple alliance he had formed with that nation and the king of Sweden. In the mean time Lewis found a pretence for seizing Lorrain, and forcing the duke to wander about Germany as a vagabond. Having been successfull in his negociations with Sweden, the emperour and

the princes of the empire, of whom the elector of Brandenburgh alone took part with Holland, the French king commenced hostilities himself at the head of one of the armies which attacked the Dutch frontier. In the space of three months the provinces of Guelderland, Overyssel, and Utrecht, were conquered. The embarrassments of the Dutch led them to renew the office of stadtholder, with which the prince of Orange was invested; and the danger of the total destruction of the republick, with the great augmentation of power which would thence accrue to France, moved Charles of England to interpose in its behalf. This, and the difficulty of completing his enterprise, as the country was laid under water, induced Lewis to propose terms of peace in conjunction with his ally; but they were such as the States, even in their wretched situation, rejected. The prince of Orange, by his dauntless courage, vigilance, and perseverance, ingratiated himself with the States, and exerted such prudence and ability, that all Europe began to unite against the two kings. The army of the empire under Montecuculi joined that of the elector of Brandenburgh: but all the efforts of these commanders were baffled by the abilities of Turenne at the head of a much inferior force. Yet at this time Lewis appears not to have been supported more by his arms than by his intrigues and money; the last of which seems to have had its banefull effects on the cabinet of Vienna, as well as on the throne of Britain. Yet the course of events rapidly changed; Spain made a treaty with the Dutch, and declared war against France: success attended the efforts of the prince of Orange; his army joined the imperial; the three lost provinces were recovered; the parliament of England forced Charles from his unnatural alliance; and Lewis, forsaken by all his allies, was obliged singly to maintain a war against the Empire, Spain, and the United Provinces. The next campaign manifested the astonishing abilities of viscount Turenne, who with little means accomplished most extraordinary things; passed the Rhine, defeated the imperial army, drove a greater before him, but tarnished his glory by the barbarity with which he ravaged the countries through which he passed, and particularly the palatinate, where through all his great qualities appeared the unfeeling atrocity of the Frenchman. The

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princes of Orange and Condé, opposed to each other, made little progress on either side; but of Franche Comté the French made themselves masters. The next campaign was marked by the death of Turenne, slain by a cannon shot, when reconnoitring; and by the retreat of the two celebrated commanders, Montecuculi and Condé, who had no longer any opponent with whom they deemed it worthy of them to contend. Though their mutual losses induced both France and the allies to wish for peace, yet the war continued for three campaigns more, in which the success of the French was the greater, and their marshall, Crequi, distinguished himself very highly.

A. D. 1678. At length the peace of Nimeguen was concluded, in which Lewis nearly prescribed the terms to the allies, who differed among themselves, and had his dominions increased by Franche Comté, Dunkirk, and a great part of Flanders. To these Lewis, by intrigue and usurpation, soon added several baillages and lordships, as dependencies of Alsace; and, gaining the magistrates of Strasburg, threw a garrison into that city. At home he framed at a vast expense the harbour of Toulon, and Nature was obliged to yield a convenient port at Rochfort. Having raised a powerfull naval force, a squadron was sent to bombard Algiers, and the barbarous inhabitants were

A. D. 1682. compelled to make due submission; and the like was made by Tunis and Tripoli. The Genoese, who had assisted Spain and supplied the Algerines with ammunition, next felt the vengeance of Lewis: Duquesne, the admiral, threw fourteen thousand shells into their city, and the senate were reduced to make the most mortifying concessions. The influence of the prince of Orange, who had projected a coalition to clip the wings of the French monarch, prevailed on the German diet to exhort the emperour to avenge Lewis's infractions of the treaty of Nimeguen: accordingly he formed an offensive and defensive alliance with the States General. William, while only prince of Orange, was the soul of this alliance; and, after his accession to the throne of Great Britain, he succeeded in bringing the parliament to accede to it. Lewis was not unprepared to meet the attempts of the allies, who were soon joined by the king of Spain: before any declaration of war, his grand army, commanded by the Dauphin in person, invested and took Philipsburgh, after which

several other places were reduced. The palatinate was again laid waste, with such wanton barbarity, that the conflagration raised in it by Turenne was a mere spark, when compared to those flames which now reduced the country to an heap of ashes, and the inhabitants to a multitude of distressed beggars. Lewis did not attempt to meet the imperialists in the field, hoping soon to tire out some of the princes of the empire: however, the Germans succeeded in reducing several places; nor were the French at first successfull either in Flanders or Catalonia. But in Italy, where the duke of Savoy had joined the alliance, the French commander, Catinat, took from him all Savoy, except the fortress of Montmelian. In the West Indies the island of St. Christopher's was taken by the English; and ere the campaign ended, the duke of Luxemburgh gave a severe defeat to the allied army, commanded by the prince of Waldec. At sea the French had been victorious twice; on the coast of Ireland against admiral Herbert, and then over the combined British and Dutch fleets, commanded by lord Torrington off Beachy Head; which last victory gained high honour to the marine of France. William the third and Lewis exerted themselves for a vigorous prosecution of the war; and though after the loss of his able minister, Louvois, added to that of Colbert, and the death of the duke of Luxemburgh, the superiority of Lewis declined, yet repeated were his victories and splendid the achievements of both his armies and fleets. But the patience of his adversary, and the ability with which he repaired his almost constant want of success, protracted the contest, until, amidst all her triumphs, France was reduced to a most wretched state, stripped of men and exhausted of money. Lewis perceiving this, had recourse to intrigue and negociation; and with the duke of Savoy a peace was actually signed at Loretto, whither A. D. 1696. the duke repaired under pretence of a pilgrimage to the idol there worshipped. In the mean time negociations had been carried on with the States at the Hague; and at length it was agreed that a congress of all parties should meet at a palace belonging to king William near Ryswick, where a treaty between England and France was first signed; Lewis having previously, however, made such efforts as led to new success both in the Netherlands and Catalonia.

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The conduct of William in thus making a separate peace, was reprobated by the imperialists, and, it should seem, not unjustly, as perfidious; yet, being thus deserted, all the allies were at last obliged to come in, and general peace was restored by France ceding most of her conquests, receiving terms as if she had been vanquished, and retiring from the war baffled and disgraced. Charles the second of Spain being declining in health and without issue, Lewis naturally became anxious to have some settlement made of his dominions, by which they should not all fall under the power of the emperour, nor be the subject of contention in a renewed war. He therefore entered into negociations with the British monarch on the point, and a partition treaty was concluded by these two kings and the States General; by which, without even the privity, much less the consent of either Spain or its monarch, his dominions were parcelled out as it seemed good to the contractors. But this treaty was rendered nugatory by the death of the heir of the crown of Spain, the electoral prince of Bavaria, and a new one was negociated and signed. In the mean time, however, by methods so usual with all courts, intrigue and bribery, Lewis effected his purpose of inducing Charles the second to make a will, appointing the French monarch's son, the duke of Anjou, sole heir to all his dominions; soon after which he expired. On the notification of his decease and will to Lewis, this monarch seemed to scruple breaking through the engagement he had so lately contracted. But this scruple, if it really existed, was soon vanquished by the unprincipled advice of the Dauphin, Madame Maintenon, and some of his ministers; and the young king set out for his new dominions. And with this event, the source of a protracted war, under which the monarchy of France had nearly sunk, closes the history of that country for the seventeenth century.

Occurrences in Spain during the 17th century.

In the first year of the new century in Spain the queen was delivered of an infanta, who was named Anna. On the death of queen Elizabeth, the court sent an embassador into England to make, under pretence of complimenting king James, some overtures; which at length produced a peace, the more acceptable both on account of the continuance of the misunderstandings between France and Spain, and because it was hoped it might lead to a treaty with

the United Provinces. Ere the peace with England was ratified, the queen of Spain was delivered of a son, to whom was given the name of Philip; and the next year she produced another daughter, named Maria. The finances being now in great disorder, the blame was laid on the minister, and many charges urged against him. This confirmed him in his opinion, that the sums squandered on spies and pensioners must be retrenched, and the war in the Low Countries put an end to. The situation of affairs rendered it requisite to call an assembly of the states, which accordingly met at Madrid, and there acknowledged the infant Don Philip as heir-apparent of his father, and passed a law for remedy of the evils experienced from want of a sufficient silver currency. The minister, the duke of Lerma, procured a truce for eight months in the Low Countries, and in the following year, under the mediation of the kings of France and England, another for twelve years was concluded between the Spanish monarch, the archduke, and the States General. The apprehensions which the clergy entertained of the power and ill designs of the Moors remaining in Spain, now produced an edict for their expulsion; and about six hundred thousand persons, whose industry was of no small benefit to the country, were forced out of it. Of the reciprocal marriages of Lewis the thirteenth of France with the infanta of Spain, and of the prince of Asturias with the princess Isabella, mention has already been made. The Spanish ministry had completed the entire subjugation of Italy to their monarch, and employed themselves in unobservedly rivetting the chains of that country; but their despotick behaviour on the demise of the dukedom of Mantua manifested the power which they had acquired. They next made a descent on Barbary, and built a strong fort on the Gulf of Marmora, to prevent the corsairs taking refuge therein. With the duke of Savoy it was sometimes war and sometimes peace; and when a treaty was at length concluded at Astè by the governour of Milan, it was disclaimed, and he removed from his government; and his successor made such preparations for the renewal of the war, as threw the duke of Savoy into great perplexity. And though the duke did not become the victim of those destructive plans which had been formed against him, yet was he at length

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obliged to come to an accommodation on terms by no means pleasing to him. In the East Indies the war continuing between the Dutch and the Spaniards, a signal advantage was gained at sea by the latter, and celebrated at home with great demonstrations of joy. The duke of Lerma, who had so long ruled Spain, was now by the intrigues of his own ungratefull son, the duke of Uzeda, and a monk whom he himself had made confessor to the king, deprived of the monarch's favour, removed from his office, and his son appointed to fill it. The new minister advised the king to shew himself to his subjects, and to make a journey into Portugal, where the degeneracy of the nobility, who consumed in folly and luxury their vast hereditary revenues, occasioned great discontents. Here Philip was most gorgeously received, and by his affable behaviour pleased the Portuguese: he held an assembly of the states, in which the nobility swore allegiance to his son, as heir-apparent; and he swore to maintain their privileges and govern according to law. The German branch of the Austrian family now standing in need of assistance from that of Spain, the opposition forming against this last in Italy, and the Turks having a powerfull fleet at sea, contributed to perplex the Spanish ministry, who shewed unusual vigour in their councils: they effectually assisted the emperour; and the old treaty of marriage with England was revived. The Spaniards having spirited up the Papists of the Valteline to revolt from the Grisons and murder their Protestant countrymen, erected several forts in that country; the duke of Ossuna, viceroy of Naples, having too great an inclination to make himself independent, was removed from his government; and the pope was at last prevailed on to make the infant Don Ferdinand, only ten years old, archbishop of Toledo. Though thus successfull, the spirits of the king were broken; he perceived his end approaching, and prepared for it by an act of justice, commanding the Valteline, of the seizure of which he had disapproved, to be restored, and died in the twenty-third year of his reign. Philip the fourth, his son and successor, had for his favourite, and it might be said for his ruler, Don Gaspar de Guzman, count of Olivares, who having, or conceiving he had a great genius, did not like to be controuled; and therefore, besides removing the prime ministers he made

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other great changes in the cabinet and court; and having thrown an odium on the late administration for their pusillanimity, he projected a different course, and determined on the conclusion of the existing truce to revive the war with the Low Countries, and render the authority of the crown of Spain paramount both there and in Italy. In this last country the Valteline was not, according to the late king's will, restored to the Grisons. But the emperour being assisted by the Spanish forces against the Protestants, he granted to king Philip the investiture of Milan, Final, Piombino, and other less fiefs in Italy. The treaty of marriage with England, though not intended to be carried into effect, was continued, until the simulation being perceived, this last country was added to the number of those who sought to diminish the influence of the House of Austria. The war being renewed with Holland, occasioned a great expense; while the French over-ran the Valteline, and the Dutch made themselves masters of the capital of Brazil; though a Spanish admiral had some success against them at sea, as well as against the Moors. The policy of Olivares excited enemies on all sides: the French and Venetians, the duke of Savoy and the English, all concurred in attacking the Spanish territories, yet made little progress; while on the other side the marquis Spinola took Breda, and don Frederick de Toledo had great success against the Dutch in Brazil. But the financial difficulties caused by the extensive operations thus rendered necessary, induced the minister to attempt to conclude a peace with France, and in that attempt he succeeded; as well as in strengthening the connection between the two branches of the House of Austria by the marriage of the infanta donna Maria to Ferdinand, afterwards emperour. The war which took place in Italy on the death of Vincent, duke of Mantua, has been already noticed in the history of that country; and to the ill success attending that was added a defeat of a Spanish fleet in America by the Dutch, and the loss of the Havannah galleons to a commander of the same nation. But in Spain both court and nation were consoled by the birth of a prince named Balthazar. Olivares having obtained for himself the dukedom of St. Lucar, chose to be distinguished by the singular title of the Conde Duke, and, in addition to this honour, he acquired that of

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being deemed the author of the general war that was now kindled in Europe. While all his schemes in Italy failed, and the little success on the coast of Brazil was much more than counterbalanced by a great loss at sea in Europe, the conde duke had the mortification of seeing his rival in politicks and fame, Richlieu, made duke and peer of France at home, and by the senate of Venice received into the number of their nobility. In the same year Philip concluded a treaty with the emperour, to enable him to resist the Swedes. There was some success against the Dutch in Brazil; but both the States and the French were very successfull in the Netherlands. In the mean time the king's brother, don Carlos, died at Madrid, and the prince Balthazar was acknowledged heir-apparent of the Spanish monarchy. Affairs in the Low Countries proceeded from bad to worse; because the treasures of Spain were exhausted in supporting the influence of the House of Austria in Germany. The cardinal infant having been appointed to succeed the infanta Isabella in the government of the Netherlands, and having met with some impediments in his journey, at length took possession of his office; when the town of Dunkirk refused to admit a garrison he sent thither. The enterprizes of France and Spain against each other, though no war was declared, were the fruits of the mutual animosity of Richlieu and Olivares. But the cardinal infant having surprized the elector of Treves in his capital, and sent him prisoner to Vienna for having admitted a French garrison, Lewis the thirteenth demanded this elector of the cardinal infant, and being refused, formally declared war, and followed his declaration by an army, which defeated that of the Spaniards. Yet in the next year prince Thomas of Savoy, who commanded the Spanish forces, pushed the war for a while with effect, but was not able to keep the ground he had gained. Both parties having assented to conferences for peace, the passports for the plenipotentiaries of the Protestant princes were refused by the emperour, and those for the Dutch by the king of Spain; the former considering the princes as his vassals, and the latter looking on the Dutch as rebels. This haughty spirit was not likely to be lowered by the success of the next campaign, when the cardinal infant routed with great loss the young count of Nassau, and made

a considerable capture of naval and military stores; and afterwards gained a complete victory over his father the prince of Orange. But in Portugal symptoms of the approaching separation of that country from Spain began now to appear; and an insurrection occurred, in which the duke of Braganza was proclaimed king; but he withdrew himself out of the reach of the insurgents. Yet Olivares was not taught caution; but treated with contempt the inhabitants of the provinces, whose ancient privileges he deemed fetters on the royal authority, which he wished to render absolute, from a persuasion that the king could not dictate to other powers of Europe, until he was secure from all opposition at home. The imperial general, Picolomini, who had entered into the service of Spain, forced the French from the lines of Thionville: but the Dutch gained a considerable victory over a Spanish fleet in the English Channel; and the following year Spain lost the city of Arras. A flagrant breach of the privileges of the Catalans, having excited an insurrection at Barcelona, so injudicious were the measures taken to repress it, that the insurgents applied and obtained assistance from France. At the same time the conde duke's policy in employing the Portuguese to reduce the Catalans, and bringing the principal of their nobility to serve so far from home, led the last to conclude, that the only means they had left to preserve themselves from exile and slavery, were embarking at once in rebellion. The behaviour of the Catalans encouraged them to this step; and for a leader they looked to the duke of Braganza, who had a fair title to the crown: they made him an offer of it, and, by the advice of his duchess, he accepted it. The design was conducted with vigour and secresy, Lisbon was surprized, and don Juan the fourth was proclaimed; the vice-queen A. D. 1640. made prisoner, the fleet seized, the fortresses were reduced, the Spaniards driven out, and a new government settled in less than a month: nor was any thing attempted to recover this kingdom for some time. This misfortune was followed by the death of the cardinal infant in the Netherlands, who, previous to his illness, had recovered Aire. To him succeeded don Francisco de Melo. The secret by which Olivares governed his master was by being the confident, if not the companion of his pleasures. One fruit of these was

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now brought forward; and, though scarcely thirteen years old, under the title of Don Juan of Austria declared generalissimo of the army against Portugal; while the heir-apparent was left under the care of the countess Olivares, to the chagrin of the queen and the indignation of the people. The minister's projects being attended with little else than failure, he was at length so reduced in spirits that he besought the king's leave to retire, but was comforted by assurances of the continuance of the royal favour. Soon after this, however, the visible decline of Philip's partiality to him encouraged his enemies to attempt his dismissal; and with no great difficulty was it procured at first, and, by the impolitick conduct of Olivares himself, confirmed by banishment to Toro. Adverse occurrences rendered the burden of government insupportable by the king, when deprived of his minister. In Flanders the French became masters of Gravelines, and the Dutch of Sas van Ghent; and on the side of Portugal the marquis of Torrecusa was routed by the duke of Albuquerque with great loss. Yet what still more afflicted the Spaniards was, the death of the queen in the flower of her age; after whose decease the king committed the management of affairs to don Lewis Haro de Guzman, nephew to the conde duke de Olivares, but inclined to measures entirely different. While the war continued with varying, yet generally adverse fortune for Spain, the prince
A. D. 1647. Balthazar died. That unexampled revolution at Naples, which took place under Massaniello, threw all things there into confusion; and had France afterwards assisted the duke of Guise, Naples would have been lost to Spain. But in the Low Countries the Dutch statesmen were prevailed on to sign a provisional treaty with Spain until that of a final peace could be adjusted. The archduke Leopold William being declared governour of the Spanish Netherlands, and having brought with him a reinforcement of imperial troops, conducted the war prudently and valiantly, and not quite without success. On the side of Portugal some of the Spanish ministers entered into a base project for assassinating the king; which, however, was discovered and punished. Don Juan of Austria put an end to the rebellion in Naples, and the duke of Guise was there taken prisoner; and the peace with the United Provinces was

signed in the beginning of the next year. But the war with France continued to the disadvantage of Spain: and this country itself was visited with a plague and famine. The king being pressed to a second marriage, selected the archduchess Mary Anne, daughter of A. D. 1648. the emperour by the infanta donna Maria, and, consequently, his own niece; and the new queen arrived the following year in Spain. In the mean time Spain having refused to have any part in the peace of Munster, the archduke Leopold William made a short irruption into France, and retook some fortresses in the Netherlands: after which the dissensions in France gave the Spaniards advantages on all sides; and, as has been stated, the archduke was for some time joined by the viscount de Turenne. Still, such was the exhausted state of Spain, and so many the points on which she had to act, that she profited little by the badness of her adversary's situation. One comfort, however, Philip received in the birth of a daughter, who was named Maria Margaretta: but the next year produced more success against France; Gravelines being reduced, and the prince of Condé joining the Spanish army; Turenne having returned to his allegiance. Barcelona, too, was now recovered from the French, and the whole of Catalonia, except Roses, followed the fate of the capital: the king likewise held at Madrid an assembly of the states, in which some good laws were enacted. For three years after this the affairs of Spain declined. In Flanders the military abilities of the prince of Condé were counteracted by those of Turenne; the archduke Leopold retired from the Spanish service, and don Juan of Austria was appointed to his command; and when he arrived, the success of his first campaign revived the spirits of the Flemings, and somewhat abated the chagrin which the prince of Condé had begun to experience. On the side of Portugal little enterprize appeared in either party; but the king of Portugal's declining state of health ended in his death ere the close of the year. The war with A. D. 1656. England now added to the losses of Spain that of the island of Jamaica, and of some rich galleons in the present, and in the following year, the burning of more in the island of Teneriff by admiral Blake. Considerable efforts were made, too, on the side of Portugal; and at Madrid, the queen was delivered of a prince.

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who was named Philip Prosper. This subject of joy was soon counterbalanced by ill success on almost every side; that in Flanders has been related in the history of France; and that of Portugal consisted in the loss of the battle of Elvas, where about two thousand of the Spanish forces fell. In Catalonia some little success attended the arms of Spain; the satisfaction resulting from which was increased by the birth of another royal infant, who was baptized by the name of Ferdinand Thomas. The count de Fuensaldagna, the Spanish governour of the Milanese, now represented the real situation of affairs in Italy so strongly, both at Madrid and to the duchess-dowager of Savoy, as to dispose both her and the king of Spain to the conclusion of a peace; and the fear of a marriage between the French king and daughter of the duchess, induced Philip to lay aside the repugnance which he had previously manifested to a match which had been before proposed between Lewis and the infanta of Spain; and the signification of this to the French minister, led to those negociations, which, as has already been stated, terminated in

A. D. 1659. the peace of the Pyrenees.* As soon after the conclusion of this peace as circumstances would permit, the Spanish cabinet applied themselves to a more vigorous prosecution of the war with Portugal. To take the command in this, don Juan of Austria had been called from the Netherlands, and was put at the head of a considerable army; but his success with which was far from answering the sanguine expectations of the Spanish ministers, who did not act in the manner demanded by the situation of the country, which was quickly deprived of an able counsellor in the count de Fuensaldagna; nor did the prime minister, himself, Lewis de Haro, long survive him. The only surviving prince of Spain, too, was now taken off by death; but the grief excited by this loss was alleviated by the birth of another prince, named Carlos. The following campaign in Portugal proved favourable, and the subsequent state of that kingdom was

* It is said, that when the English embassador, Lockhart, appeared on the conclusion of this treaty, on Mazarine's asking him for whom he acted? he replied, that was a point not yet settled in England, but that what he offered was for the part of those who should be uppermost.

such, as to encourage the prosecution of hostilities. The young king, Alphonso, a perfect boy, and of no promising parts, had deposed his mother, to whom both his father and himself were indebted for their crowns, from the regency; so that there was scarcely the form of civil government left. Yet count Schomberg, who still remained in Portugal to assist the commander-in-chief, so ably conducted the military operations, that don Juan suffered such a defeat, as fixed the crown of Portugal on the head of Alphonso. King Philip, conscious of the declension of his health, now concluded a treaty with the emperour Leopold for the support of the House of Austria, and consented to his marrying his youngest daughter, whom he had declared capable of inheriting all his dominions. The Portuguese having, from don Juan's not receiving the necessary supplies, gained some further advantages, the Spanish ministers removed don Juan from the command, and gave it to the count de Marsin, a Frenchman; for whom they formed a very fine army, though the last they had. But he soon gave place to the marquis of Tarracena, called from the government of the Netherlands, who received from the Portuguese so severe a defeat, that the Spanish monarch swooned on hearing of it. Neither did he long survive the misfortune; but died A. D. 1665. in the autumn of the same year. The deceased monarch was succeeded by his son, Charles the second, not quite four years old, and his mother assumed the office of queen-regent, under the will of the late king; and the weakness of her conduct proved at this juncture particularly detrimental. The war with Portugal still continued; neither was it until after some time that the sloth and pride of the Spaniards were sufficiently vanquished by the fear of the Portuguese throwing themselves entirely into the hands of the French, to induce their court to accept of the mediation of England, and conclude that treaty by which the right of the House of Braganza was acknowledged, and the two crowns reconciled, after a war of twenty-eight A. D. 1668. years by a fair and final peace. Under pretence of the title of the French queen to the Spanish Netherlands, as heiress to her deceased brother Balthazar, Lewis the fourteenth now made that attack on those countries, which has already been noticed in the history of France, and which ended in the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which

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Spain ceded to her enemy a number of fortresses with the adjoining lands. The weak queen of Spain, who had taken her confessor, father Nitard, for her chief counsellor, and driven from the court the man whom she ought principally to have consulted, don Juan of Austria, was now obliged to listen to the strong admonitions of the last, and part with her favourite by sending him to Rome. Both the Emperour and Spain having made a common cause with the United States, the French took Franche Comté from the Spaniards. The injudicious and unjust measures of don Lewis del Hoyo, governour of Messina, having caused the revolt of that city, the people of it, pressed by famine, submitted to the French; whose insolence proved less tolerable than even that of the Spaniards. Charles the second was now declared of age: his preceptor, the bishop of Malaga, who being a natural son of Philip the fourth, was his half-brother, endeavoured to instill into him sentiments becoming his dignity; while his mother earnestly laboured to prevent him from attending to any thing but amusement. Of the military operations by land at this time, a statement has before been given; by sea, after two drawn battles, the Spanish and Dutch fleets were beaten, with many vessels sunk and burnt by the French; by which defeat the spirits of the inhabitants of Messina were raised, and the rest of Sicily thrown into the greatest consternation. After the retreat of father Nitard, the queen-mother having introduced a new favourite, don Hernando de Valenzuela, his inability to conduct the publick affairs, added to the causes which generally raise enemies to a minister, occasioned an association of grandees to place don Juan of Austria, who as lieutenant-general of the kingdom of Arragon had gained great popularity, at the head of the government; a project in which the young king, whose abilities, though somewhat impaired, it was suspected by some drug treacherously administered to him, were still such as to make him desirous of being viewed by his subjects as their sovereign, readily joined; and the queen-mother was removed to Toledo, and her favourite banished to the Philippines. While on all other sides ill success attended Spain, in Sicily the general abhorrence which the rapacious behaviour of the French had brought on them, and their king's want of his troops in other places, led to a sudden

evacuation of the island and total desertion of the people of Messina, who had been so weak as to place confidence in a power which acted only from motives of self-interest and ambition. The Dutch having concluded the treaty of Nimeguen, the Spaniards were compelled to make peace with France also, but the ratifications of the treaty were not hastily exchanged. The king having, it is said, received a strong impression from a portrait of Maria Louisa, the daughter of the duke of Orleans, that princess was demanded in marriage for him. Charles appearing pleased with this marriage, the enemies of don Juan suggested, that he secretly laboured to prevent it; a representation which rendered the king cold to don Juan; on which his party was abandoned by several. A multitude of other mortifying circumstances that occurred, so preyed on the spirits of this great man as to bring on him a disease, under which, when the king's tenderness for him had revived too late, he sunk into the grave; leaving the nation uselessly to acknowledge, that in him the abilities and virtues of the House of Austria made their last efforts: yet scarcely was he interred, ere the simple Charles went to Toledo to bring back his mother. The king's marriage was then celebrated; after which, for a long time, Charles dispatched the business which would not admit of delay with a young secretary without parts or experience; but at length the duke of Medina Cœli, a nobleman of gentle disposition and much beloved, was appointed prime minister. The queen-mother by degrees lost her power, and the very distressed state of affairs through want of money, stupified the new minister; while the French king most ungenerously took advantage of Charles's embarrassment to urge pretensions on pretensions: and at length so low sunk the credit of Spain that she was insulted on all sides. The men of superior parts in the country were kept at a distance by those who had the king's ear, lest they should suffer by their coming into power. After the duke of Medina Cœli had resigned in consequence of the clamour of which he could not remove the causes, the marquis of Grana, governour of the Netherlands, in the hope of exciting the allies of Spain to unite on her side to repress the perpetual aggressions and infractions of the peace of Nimeguen committed through the unprincipled ambition of the French king,

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declared war against that monarch. This measure, however, had not the wished-for effect: still it served to set in a just light the arrogance of Lewis the fourteenth, and his contempt of treaties.

A. D. 1683. The war thus begun lasted but a year; the Spaniards being compelled to accept of a truce for twenty years, by which they ceded Luxemburgh; but the Spanish ratification coming slowly, the French, with their accustomed nefarious rapacity, took the opportunity of extorting from the inhabitants all the money which they had, under the name of a contribution. Charles at this time began to apply himself most steadily to the conduct of the government, and made several salutary regulations, and the imperial minister now acquired a greater influence at the court of Madrid: a circumstance which proved highly serviceable to the House of Austria. While the ministers of Spain at the various courts of Europe were deploring the exorbitant growth of the French power, and suggesting the necessity of an alliance to curb it, one was actually signed at Augsburg between the emperour, the king of Sweden, the elector of Bavaria, and other princes of the empire, and the Spanish monarch, for the protection of their respective dominions, the maintenance of the peace of Nimeguen, and of the late truce for twenty years. This league prevented the additional aggressions and insults of the shameless and remorseless Lewis from proving so mortifying to the Spanish court at this time as he intended. The great undertakings proposed obliged Charles to pursue the reformation which he had commenced; and by the different retrenchments the court was visibly changed for the better. That of France having gained intelligence of the league of Augsburg, proposed to both the emperour and the king of Spain to convert the twenty years truce into a perpetual peace, and received such an answer as manifested that they acted in concert. At Madrid the queen-mother, in a great measure, recovered her influence, and

A. D. 1688. used it no better than before. The Moors at this time besieging Oran, the king publickly said, that had such an assault been made on a place belonging to France, he must have published a proclamation for restraining the nobility from going thither without leave: the Spanish lords took the hint; two hundred of them went at their own expense, and raised the siege. The queen of Spain dying, after

an illness of three days, a considerable change was made in affairs; she was buried with little ceremony, and, in about four months, the king was married by proxy to the princess Mary Anne, daughter of the elector of Bavaria. The French king refusing to let the Spaniards remain neuter in the hostilities then commencing, declared war; when the first campaign produced no great events in Flanders, but in Catalonia the Spaniards were victorious: while in Barbary Charles lost Larache to Muley Ishmael, emperour of Morocco; who, treacherously as well as cruelly, caused the survivors of the garrison to linger out their lives in prison. After this, the Catalonians again revolting, and soliciting succours from France, made a powerfull diversion in favour of the enemy. The most important events of the renewed war have been already related; the same distress in point of finances, though by arrivals from America and expedients at home sometimes relieved, continued in Spain; while the king's being without children occasioned great intrigues respecting the succession. A. D. 1693. After the fifth campaign, which proved very unsuccessfull to Spain, overtures of peace were made on the part of the French king; and Charles finding that similar had been made to his allies, together with some insinuations respecting settling the succession of his dominions, he, in a letter to the States General, assuring them of his resolution to prosecute the war, mentioned those insinuations with horrour. Though the two subsequent campaigns proved more successfull, the next was marked by the duke of Savoy's desertion of the allies, when the emperour and Spain were obliged to accept of a neutrality for Savoy; and after the loss of Barcelona, Ath in Flanders, and Carthagena in the West Indies, the Spanish ministers found it necessary to accept of the terms offered them, and sign the peace of Ryswick; by which were restored to Spain the county of Chinei, the fortress of Luxemburgh, and several others. In the mean time the queen-mother had paid the debt of Nature; and the queen-consort, pursuing with remarkable vivacity her interest or her inclinations, paid no regard to the murmurs her measures excited in the nation. Through her influence the count de Montercy, one of the ablest and honestest men Spain could boast of, was forbidden the court, and the count d'Oropesa, raised to be president of Castile.

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A. D. 1698.

The precarious state of the king's health promoted the intrigues carried on to secure the succession; but the French quickly shewed their superiority in this field. Of the treaty of partition now concluded between the French and British monarchs and the States-General mention has been already made; and as well as of the circumstances which led to the conclusion of the second. During the intermediate time a violent insurrection took place at Madrid, which was found to have originated in a new tax, the produce of which was shared by the count d'Oropesa, the amirante of Castile, and the countess of Berlips, the queen's favourite. The king, therefore, pardoned the insurgents, and justly removed the count d'Oropesa from the presidentship of Castile, banishing both him and the amirante, and recalling the cardinal of Toledo with other ministers, who had been for some time out of favour. While the allies were intent on their new treaty of partition, the Spanish embassador at London presented a memorial on the first, so grossly worded, that he was ordered to quit the kingdom; which was returned by a similar order to the British minister at Madrid. Nevertheless the treaty proceeded, and the differences with the court of Spain were amicably compromised. Notwithstanding every effort on the part of the queen, the publick clamour, and the representations of the ministers were so strong, that the countess of Berlips and her family were sent back to Germany. In the precarious state of the king's health, the communication made of the conclusion of the second treaty of partition threw him into a deep melancholy; and on the emperour's refusing to send into Spain the archduke Charles as he requested, he lost all patience and self-controul. When the French minister presenting a menacing memorial, it brought on so violent a fit of his disorder, that his life was despaired of: yet recovering, by the representation of the cardinal of Portocarrero he was prevailed on, very reluctantly, to sign a will, in which he appointed the duke of Anjou to succeed to the crown and dominions of Spain; which, by his death taking place in another month, proved to be his last. As soon as the will was opened, the regents sent information of its contents to the French king, who quickly notified to them his son's acceptance of the crown. On which they had the new king proclaimed, who thus became

Philip the fifth of Spain; and with whose accession to the throne closes the history of that country for the seventeenth century.

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The seventeenth century in Britain was ushered in by the earl of Essex's mad project, whatever it really was in itself; his futile attempt to carry it into execution by raising the citizens of London, who declined taking his part; and his trial, conviction, and execution; the justice of which last he acknowledged. Some few of his accomplices afterwards suffered; and when the embassadors from Scotland congratulated Elizabeth upon the discovery of the plot, the turn of her answer sufficiently indicated, that she had no great confidence in James's good disposition to her.* On the meeting of the parliament, great complaints being made of monopolies carried on under the queen's letters patent, Elizabeth put an end to them in so handsome a manner, that the commons granted her the largest subsidy which she had yet had. A Spanish force now landing in Ireland, the commander of it declared in a manifesto, that he was come to deliver that island *out of the jaws of the Devil.* Yet on his capitulation, to which he was forced, with a spirit very different from the papal, he was permitted to retire with his troops into Spain: after which the earl of Tiroen's affairs rapidly declining, he yielded himself to the lord deputy. The same year the queen receiving information of a conspiracy forming by the Jesuits, banished them from the kingdom by proclamation, forbidding their return on pain of death. The age of the queen, on her being seized with illness, induced her courtiers to conclude, that she would not recover, and consequently most of them deserted her to court the favour of her presumptive successor, the king of Scotland. This brought on a lowness of spirits that could only increase her disorder; and after naming James for her successor, she expired in the seventieth year of her age, and forty-fourth of her reign. Six hours after the decease of Elizabeth, James,

Occurrences in Britain during the 17th century. A. D 1601.

A. D. 1603.

* In the siege of Ostend, which was begun this year, the first governour of the place was sir Francis Vere, under whom the English troops greatly signalized themselves. But one anecdote of the unconquerable courage of the British must be mentioned: John Carew, esq. of Antony, having one of his arms shot off in a sally, and carried to a great distance from him, went and took it up, and carried it coolly into the town.

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king of Scotland, was proclaimed king of England. The new king employed a month in his journey, on which he met with every testimony of readiness to receive him from his English subjects; to none of whom he shewed greater marks of [illegible] than to Robert Cecil, the secretary of state, who had privately corresponded with him in Elizabeth's life-time.* James manifested his contempt to the late queen by not putting on mourning for her, by permitting any one to appear in his presence in it. He [illegible] distinguished the Howard family, as having suffered [illegible] his mother; [illegible] manifested his determination to consider England and Scotland as one kingdom, by giving seats in the English privy council to several Scotch lords. In his distribution of other honours his profusion would have testified only the weakness of his understanding, had not his predecessor's parsimony of that respect have rendered requisite some addition to the peers and knights of the realm. The king's high opinion of his own faculties and attainments (and he is stated to have had good natural abilities and a great share of learning,) was soon discovered by his courtiers, who took care to seek his favour by flattering it, as well as by obsequiously supporting the notions of regal authority. The management of affairs he committed chiefly to secretary Cecil, afterwards earl of Salisbury, and the earl of Suffolk, lord chamberlain, and that of Northampton, lord keeper; both the last were suspected of being concealed Papists. [illegible] the king's arrival in London, he sent for his queen and family, consisting then of Henry, nine years old, Elizabeth, and Charles. [illegible] the coronation took place, a plague, of which upwards of thirty thousand died in one year in London, drove the king from the capital; and a conspiracy was said to be discovered for placing on the throne James's cousin-german, Arabella Stewart; for which three of the accused suffered death immediately, and others were severely punished, of whom sir Walter Raleigh was kept in prison twelve years ere he was disposed of, as will presently be stated. The

* On this journey, James manifested his ignorance of the laws of his new kingdom, by ordering a cut-purse to be hanged, [illegible] his warrant and without a trial.

Presbyterians, who, from James's education in the kirk of Scotland, conceived he would be favourable to them, while he had seen too much of their republican tendencies to be so, having presented a petition for some alterations in the doctrine and discipline of the Church, a conference was holden at Hampton Court between some bishops and Presbyterian ministers, in which the king appears to have assumed the part of a disputant, and the dissenters got no concession. Ere the parliament met, a treaty of peace with Spain was set on foot, and the letters of mark against the Spaniards were withdrawn; and when the Houses did assemble, a speech of enormous length, marked with pedantry, and replete with suggestions not calculated to please any party, gave ground for jealousy of the king's intentions. After which, not waiting for the parliament's decision on his proposal for an union of the two kingdoms, he had himself proclaimed king of Great Britain, united the arms of the two countries in the flag, and made the Scotch coins current in England. The king having infringed the privileges of the House of Commons, their conduct on the occasion, though perfectly constitutional and highly moderate, led to the prorogation of the parliament; soon after which the peace with Spain was concluded. Nothing of importance occurred after this to disturb the king in his hunting, to which amusement he was much addicted, until the detection of a plot which ought not to be forgotten, that which is known by the name of the Gunpowder Treason Plot; in which a certain number of Papists had engaged to blow up the House of Peers on the first day of the sessions, while the king and his eldest son were in the House; and for which purpose they had deposited with great privacy in a cellar under that House a sufficient number of barrels of gunpowder. But Thomas Percy, a gentleman-pensioner, being desirous of saving his friend the lord Monteagle, furnished him with such an hint of the peril of attending the parliament at its meeting, as led to an investigation and consequent discovery, together with the arrest of Guy Fawkes, properly prepared to set fire to the powder: who, on being menaced with the rack, confessed all he knew. Of the other conspirators some were killed in trying to escape, and some taken; one of the latter, Thomas Winter, wrote his confession with his own hand:

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On the depositions of those who were executed, Henry Garnet, the provincial of the Jesuits was condemned. And though the embassadors of the archduke and king of Spain exhibited extraordinary demonstrations of joy at the escape of James, yet the archduke refused to deliver up some of the accomplices who had fled into the Netherlands, and even sent the chief of them to Spain, where he was well received. After this attempt against both the king and country,

A. D. 1606. it was deemed proper to frame an oath for the discovery of those who would not acknowledge that the king held his crown independent of the pope; and though it was so framed as to go to this point only, the pope sent a brief into England, forbidding his followers to take it; and in a second told them, that by doing so, they would forfeit all hopes of salvation. Such was the declaration of the then head of that Church, which boasts that *she never alters her doctrines!* The next year was commenced the translation of the Bible still in use. The king's liberality to his favourites, which in truth amounted to prodigality, made it the chief concern of his ministers to provide him with money; while little regard was paid to foreign affairs throughout this reign. Among the expedients to obtain money, when Sir John Bourchier, with the assistance of others, had brought to perfection in England the making of allum, the king engrossed the sale of it to himself, at the same time prohibiting the importation of it. In the following year the king granted the East India Company a charter, by which they were incorporated for ever. The High Commission Court, of the establishment of which notice has been already taken, now began to excite complaints by its arbitrary proceedings. During the sitting of the parliament, in which the inquisitorial proceedings of this court were complained of, the

A. D. 1610. king created his eldest son Henry, a prince of great expectation, prince of Wales. And when the parliament next met, the humour in which the House of Commons appeared, induced the king to put an end to it by dissolution, after it had continued seven years. James being freed from the trouble of managing the parliament, his court, as well as those of his queen and son, became a continued scene of mirth and diversions. The English and Scotch parties into which his courtiers were divided, were both well aware of their

sovereign's propensity to favouritism, and were each desirous of making advantage of it. But the last succeeded in fixing his attachment (which was chiefly attracted by a gracefull person and fine clothes,) on a young Scotch gentleman, named Robert Carr; who soon became a perfect favourite, and was raised to the office of lord treasurer of Scotland, vacant by the death of the earl of Dunbar;* and in another year, his fondness for him increasing, the king created him baron of Branspeth and viscount Rochester. Neither did the young courtier at first behave ill under these favours, being then guided by Sir Thomas Overbury, a man of considerable abilities. The earl of Salisbury's death caused a great loss to the king, he being a very able statesman, whose prudence prevented the other ministers from running into great difficulties. While the elector palatine, Frederick the fifth, was in England to be married to the princess Elizabeth, the death of Henry prince of Wales occurred, to the sincere grief of the nation, as he promised to prove a king nearly the reverse of his trifling father. In about three months after which the princess Elizabeth's marriage was celebrated. A younger daughter of the earl of Suffolk having, when only twelve years old, been married to the earl of Essex, and the bridegroom, on account of his youth, being sent to travel, during his absence his wife became an exquisite beauty. But she placed her affections on the king's favourite, treating her husband on his return in the most reprehensible manner; and at length entering into a criminal correspondence with the former, obtained, with the king's assistance, a divorce from her husband, and married Rochester, whom James on the occasion created earl of Somerset. In the mean time this ungratefull villain, having early in the intrigue found his friend and counsellor, Sir Thomas Overbury, unfavourable to it, contrived by a course of the deepest treachery to bring on him the king's displeasure, and have him committed to the Tower; where, after much effort, he at length

A. D. 1611.

* This year died Thomas Sutton, founder of the Charter House, London, which he endowed with 4,500*l.* a year for the maintenance of a master, a preacher, and a free school of forty scholars, a master and usher; and also for the maintenance of eighty poor people, with sufficient clothing, meat, drink, lodging, wages, &c.

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procured his being poisoned. The pecuniary difficulties produced by the king's prodigality led him not only to the sale of the usual titles of nobility, but to the institution of a new one in that of baronet, which was purchased at the price of a thousand pounds, and an engagement to maintain thirty foot soldiers in Ireland for three years; but which obligation for ready money was partly abated. Still all the measures to which recourse was had did not bring in the necessary sums; a parliament was therefore unwillingly summoned. But the Commons choosing to take the national complaints into consideration before the vote of a supply, the king dissolved the parliament, ere one statute was enacted; and afterwards committed to prison without bail several of the members who had spoken freely: thus violating the privileges of parliament more than any English monarch had ever done. The application to parliament for money thus failing, another was made directly to the people themselves, by demand of a benevolence. But though means were taken to mark those who refused to contribute, this does not seem to have answered the royal expectations.* As Somerset's care of his person and his vivacity decreased, his master's attachment to him was perceived to diminish; the discovery of which led the enemies of the favourite to look out for a rival, whose rise might produce his fall. This they soon found in George Villiers, the son of sir George Villiers of Brokesby in Leicestershire, a young man just returned from France, and whom they took care to place before the royal eyes, which were soon caught, the young man made first a cup-bearer, and on the queen's being prevailed on to recommend him as a favourite (a circumstance which the king always insisted on for reasons best known to himself), Villiers was knighted, and sworn in a gentleman of the bed-chamber. While the parties of the two rivals clashed much, the despicable monarch dissembled; and even after hearing the truth of Overbury's murder, and having ordered a warrant from the lord chief justice Coke for the apprehension of

* This year Mr. Hugh Middleton, citizen and goldsmith, brought the New River from near Ware, in Hertfordshire, to Islington, for the supply of the city of London.

Somerset and his accomplices, he affected to caress him in a most disgusting manner, till he was taken out of his arms by the officer sent to execute the warrant; when James continued his hypocrisy by desiring him to return speedily. Most of the accomplices in this murder were found guilty and executed: Somerset and his wretched wife were likewise condemned, but received the king's pardon, and lived to become objects of hatred to each other. James's too great love for his prerogative involved him in a dispute with the judges, in which lord chief justice Coke behaving with honest firmness, when the others gave way, brought on himself the anger of his dread sovereign, and he was deprived of his place. On the death of the lord chancellor Ellesmere, the king appointed his attorney general, Sir Francis Bacon, first lord keeper and then chancellor; previous to which the king's surviving son Charles was created prince of Wales, and his father readily embraced the offer of a negociation for a A. D. 1605. marriage between him and the infanta Maria of Spain. Of the king's eagerness for this marriage the Spanish court took full advantage; and their embassador in England, count Gondemar, a man of great abilities, so insinuated himself into his favour, that he almost governed him for years. The States General, apprized of James's want of money, contrived to get their cautionary towns out of his hands for about one-fourth of their real debt. The favourite was now created viscount Villiers, and, a few months after, earl of Buckingham. James wished to bring the church of Scotland to an uniformity with that of England; and, to commence his operations for that purpose, sent into Scotland five articles, which he thought would give the least offence to be adopted by the ministers of the kirk; but it was after much trouble and threatening that he got them received. On his journey from Scotland, whither he went on the occasion just mentioned, the king received a petition of numbers of the lower ranks, complaining of their being restrained from their customary sports on a Sunday after evening service; which was the cause of publishing the Book of Sports: for James seems to have been much more inclined to the pernicious laxity of the Papists than to the overstrained strictness of the Puritans. Yet the government in general was devolved by him on his favourite, who spared not to

fleece all he could; while being ruled by his mother, who was a Papist, those apostates from the Gospel met with no small encouragement. At this time Sir Walter Raleigh, after having been confined twelve years, obtained his release, but without a pardon: when being in great distress he obtained the king's commission to sail to America in search of a gold mine. There he attacked the Spanish colonists, but found no gold; on which when he returned to England he was arrested, and, by the influence of the Spanish embassador, put to death under his former sentence. In the mean time the negociations for the marriage continued with Spain, being purposely protracted by that court for the sake of preserving an influence over James, whom they at this time particularly wished to prevent from assisting the Protestants of Bohemia, irritated into insurrection by the ill usage received from the emperour; and who, instead of taking the then present to succeed the late emperour as their king, had chosen the elector palatine, James's son-in-law, whom the weakness and prejudices of the king, assisted by Spanish intrigue, prevented him from supporting. Indeed James's behaviour throughout the whole of this affair was such, as to make a Briton regret that the throne of his native country was ever disgraced by an animal so contemptible. The murmurs of the people at it induced the court to summon a parliament, which made an handsome grant of money to the king, and took notice of the complaints made unto them against monopolies and other grievances; and the Lords proceeded against the chancellor Bacon, the viscount of St. Albans, who had connived at the bribes received by his servants, and was condemned in a fine of forty thousand pounds, and to imprisonment during the king's pleasure, and declared incapable of any office or place. In this parliament were formed the two parties by which the nation has been since so much divided, and on which have since been bestowed the denominations of Whigs and Tories. The king having ordered the lord treasurer to adjourn the parliament, the Commons excepted against it as a breach of privilege: but the Lords declining to unite with them on the point, they yielded; while the king in a proclamation in some measure acknowledged that the adjournment originated with themselves. The dean of Westminster,

John Williams, was now made lord keeper. The complete ascendancy which Gondemar had obtained over the king, still kept him from doing any thing effectual for the elector palatine, through fear of breaking off the Spanish marriage, and made him the dupe of the House of Austria. The parliament meeting, the House of Commons voted a remonstrance to the king on the encroachments of the Papists, and on the necessity of more vigour in the case of Bohemia. The king hearing of this, wrote a letter to the Speaker, declaring he would not deign to hear it; the House then drew up a petition, which they sent, with the remonstrance annexed, by a deputation of twelve members. The remonstrance was rejected, but the petition was answered after such a manner, as produced from the House a protestation, which the king in full council declared to be invalid and of no effect; and having sent for the journal book of the clerk of the House, did with his own hand tear it out of that book. After which the parliament was dissolved by a proclamation, which was quickly followed by another, prohibiting, under severe penalties, the talking of state affairs, and charging the judges to put the laws in force against licentious tongues. Some of the most zealous members of the House, among whom were Sir Edward Coke, Selden, and Pym, were committed to prison. Party now began to run very high in the kingdom: those who dreaded the king's establishment of an arbitrary government joined with the Puritans to oppose him; those who feared the Calvinists getting the power of the kingdom into their hands, sided with the court. Of this party was William Laud, a clergyman of great parts and learning, who, by the now marquis of Buckingham's interest, was promoted to the see of St. David's. The news of the king's having quarrelled with the parliament added to the contempt which his irresolution and imbecility had excited for him in the breasts of foreigners, by whom he was most unsparingly ridiculed. Nor could the pusillanimous absurdity with which this dread sovereign continued to act until the palatinate was lost, and the treaty of marriage, with which he had so long been amused, was broken off, render him less despised by those who viewed his conduct with impartial eyes. From concessions in favour of the Papists which James had made in the marriage treaty, the court of Spain

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A. D. 1625. of his age. Thus was Britai
profusion oppressed, and sloth o

had not taught him the depths of the abominations of Rome, who made himself the slave of favourites, and whose moral character is sadly problematical. James was succeeded by Charles, his only son, with whom Buckingham was no less a favourite than with his father; and it having been already determined to attempt the recovery of the palatinate for the king of Bohemia by force, and enter into a war with Spain, one of the first measures of the new reign was to embark troops for an expedition to this last country: the young king's marriage was now celebrated by proxy, and his queen came over to England. The parliament, which immediately assembled, was addressed by Charles too much in the stile of his father; and in their petition for redress of grievances, while they justly complained of the countenance which had been given to Papists, they appear to have given but too much reason to conclude, that under that denomination all were then included who were not Calvinists. The king, displeased with their mode of proceeding, both in making the consideration of grievances take place of that of the supply, and in attacking the conduct of his ministers, hastily dissolved the parliament; and then, for the support of the war in which he had embarked, raised money by demands of loan under the privy seal. The fleet fitted out with this money returned into port unsuccessfull, and the sum obtained being expended, the king was obliged to convoke another parliament; in which nearly the same course was pursued by both parties, but with increased violence; and of whatever else we may doubt in examining their conduct, of the falsehood and hypocrisy of both sides none but a decided opinion can be formed. The earl of Bristol, to intimidate him from telling tales, having been thrown into prison after his return, and petitioned the House of Peers, the king announced to that House his intention of preferring a charge of high treason against him, and the Commons actually impeached the duke of Buckingham; for the speeches in debating on which the king committed two of their members, and during the impeachment caused the duke to be elected chancellor of Cambridge; thus trampling on the privileges, and outraging the feelings of the House. A declaration in justification of their own conduct, and a petition

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from the Commons for the removal of the duke of Buckingham, induced the king to resolve on another dissolution. This measure, manifestly taken in support of a favourite whose abuse of his power had rendered him very obnoxious, could not make on the minds of his subjects any impression favourable to Charles. Neither did the next steps he took tend to correct this: he ordered by a proclamation all who had copies of the remonstrance of the Commons to burn them; and by another prohibited preaching on the points in dispute with the Arminians; which the Calvinists considered as intended to silence only them. To remedy his want of money, besides exacting the payment of tunnage and poundage, the parliamentary grant of which expired on the demise of the crown, and other unjustifiable steps, he proceeded to the demand of a loan, enforced by means the most arbitrary and illegal. While the king's affairs went thus roughly at home, abroad he had been without success; yet by the persuasion of his evil genius Buckingham, he, under some shallow pretences, commenced hostilities against France, by a futile expedition of that duke's to the isle of Rhé. In consequence of the difficulties to which he was now reduced, the king was again prevailed on to summon a parliament. To this were returned a number of members, who had been imprisoned for not lending their money, and again released; and after much contention the Commons obtained the royal assent to the petition of right, and the parliament gave the king a large supply. After the prorogation, a fleet having been prepared for the relief of Rochelle, then besieged, Buckingham, who was to have commanded the expedition, was assassinated by John Felton, a lieutenant and a fanatick, at Portsmouth. The expedition itself sailed, and returned without effecting any thing: but, though Buckingham was gone, ere the next meeting of parliament three merchants were so violently proceeded against for refusing to pay the duty of tunnage and poundage, that, when the Houses met, the case of one of them was immediately laid before the House of Commons. Nor did the ill humour of that House fail to manifest itself in the manner in which it took up the subject of religion: in which, it is worthy of remark, that honourable House spoke nearly as strongly against the rational and pious doctrines of

Arminius, as against the idolatrous tenets of the Papists; thus affording impartial reviewers of their conduct a sufficient argument, that they themselves were slaves to the mistaken and blasphemous dogmas of Calvin. The proceedings of the House induced the king to dissolve the parliament, publishing a declaration of his reasons for the measure; in which his majesty did not forget to remind his people, that to account for his conduct to any but Heaven was mere matter of condescension in him. Were the steps of the quarrel between Charles and his parliament to be detailed at the length at which they have hitherto been given, his reign would occupy a most disproportionate space of this Abridgment; suffice it therefore to say, that having got rid of this, the king determined to go on as well as A. D. 1629. he could without calling another parliament. His necessary expenditure was curtailed by the conclusion of a peace, first with France, and then with Spain. In the same year he had the additional satisfaction of the birth of a son, named Charles. But the Presbyterians increased in the kingdom, while the conduct of Laud, bishop of London, who was already become an object of hatred to them, was very far from tending to conciliate them. The means adopted for raising money were most unwarrantable and oppressive; yet the discontents were so far from alarming the king, that he went into Scotland, was there crowned, and held a parliament, which granted him a large subsidy, and passed two acts, which tended to prepare the way for bringing the kirk to that conformity with the church of England which the king wished. In the year of Charles's visit to Scotland, to the province of Canterbury, vacant by the death of George Abbot, was promoted William Laud, bishop of London: and in the same year a second son was born to the king, and, by the name of James, created duke of York. Carrying too far their suspicions of what had appeared in the conduct of the late and the present king, the Presbyterians had now persuaded themselves that the king's council and ministers, the bishops, and particularly the archbishop of Canterbury, had formed a project to re-establish the papal superstition in England, and they used their endeavours to give this opinion currency among the people. The bishops appear to have been too indifferent to what was thus charged upon them, and rather

drew the ceremonies of the church to a closer conformity with those of Rome, than endeavoured to lessen the similarity between them; while the number of Presbyterians were perpetually increased by the rigour with which all who objected to the arbitrary proceedings were persecuted. To other modes of raising money was added that of the imposition of a tax to provide and maintain a certain number of ships to guard the seas, first laid only on the maritime towns, and then extended to the whole kingdom. This produced great opposition; yet with the ships fitted out by it the king effectually supported the arguments urged by Selden in his treatise entitled *Mare Clausum*, against those of Grotius in his *Mare Liberum*, and compelled the Dutch to pay for permission to fish on the coasts of Britain. But the opposition continuing, the opinion of the judges was taken on the case, and that decided for the king's right of levying the tax, if the safety of the kingdom was threatened. Still a Mr. Hampden, of Buckinghamshire, appealed against the tax, and a most protracted hearing of the case by all the judges took place in the Exchequer Chamber, and the determination was against Hampden, as might be expected from arbitrators who had already declared for the tax. But Charles's wish to establish a very extended prerogative in England was accompanied by efforts to bring the church government and liturgy of Scotland to an uniformity with those of England; which excited in the former country disturbances the most serious, and led to the formation of that league, afterwards so well known by the title of the Solemn League and Covenant; the subscribers to which bound themselves to maintain the religious constitution of Scotland, as it stood in the year fifteen hundred and eighty, and to reject every particular since introduced. The publication of this covenant, and the very general reception of it, was little less than the erection of the standard of rebellion in Scotland. To obviate the further designs of the devizers and managers of this league, the king sent the marquis of Hamilton as his high commissioner into Scotland: but the malcontents far from receiving him with respect, began to furnish themselves with arms. An anecdote or two will be sufficient to manifest the temper with which they acted, and to shew how much real Christian piety there

was in their conduct. It being proposed that they should renounce and deliver up their covenant, they replied, that they would sooner renounce their baptism; and hearing that the Divine service was to be read before the commissioner at Holy Rood house, they sent him word, that whosoever should read the English service in that chapel, should never read more; and when the general assembly called by the commissioner met, the differences between him and the assembly rose so high, that the latter was formally dissolved in the king's name; yet under the hypocritical affectation which was, during this reign, so much practised in both kingdoms, they continued their sessions also in his name. The king no sooner heard of this, which he considered as an act of rebellion, than he prepared for war, raised money by his usual illegal means, and an army, under the plea that the Scotch were about to invade England. In his counsels, however, he appears to have been betrayed; and when he came to an accommodation with the malcontents, who had in England more friends than the king, though he, in compliance with the articles agreed on, disbanded his forces, they retained part of theirs in a body, and all their officers in pay. Another assembly and another parliament contributed as little to reconcile the differences subsisting with the king; who having discovered an intention of some of the malcontents to have requested assistance from the king of France, determined to renew the war with Scotland; and, by the advice of his three chief advisers, who formed in fact a cabinet council, archbishop Laud, the earl of Strafford, and the lord Cottington, he called a parliament. When this met, the Commons obstinately postponing the grant of a supply to the consideration of grievances, and some treacherous persons about the king purposely giving him false information, he very quickly dissolved it. This, and every other cause of discontent were sedulously improved by the Scotch and their partizans, that is, it should seem, all the Presbyterians of England: nor does the king's penetration appear to have been at all equal to his danger. Disgusting is the perpetual repetition of his unquestionable prerogatives in all his speeches and all his proclamations; while his cool and crafty adversaries deeming this to be, what it really was, *vox et prætera nihil*, strengthened the attachment of

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the people to their cause, by taking advantage of the mistakes and imprudent steps of the king. This monarch having by various ways, and among the rest the unjustifiable measure of ship money, raised some troops to send toward Scotland; the advance-guard of them was defeated by the Scotch army that had entered England; and so disaffected were the royal forces, that instead of burning to wipe off this disgrace, it became highly dangerous that the king should venture an engagement. In the mean while, nothing which subtlety could do, seems to have been omitted to engage the people of England to make a common cause with those of Scotland, and to drive the king to what, they seemed justly to have thought, would deprive him of his power of resisting them, assembling another parliament. The number of applications made on this head, and his want of money even to keep his army together, compelled Charles to take the step proposed, and a parliament accordingly met on the
A. D. 1640. third of November. Among the different parties of which this was composed, there lurked, concealed under the name of Presbyterians, a body of men of very considerable abilities who were afterwards termed Independents; whose object was the overthrow of the government both in church and state. It is evident that the purpose of these was promoted by the exertions of those whose views went no further than to a reformation in those particulars which really stood in need of reform. Every exposure of past mismanagement afforded a new opportunity of speaking against the king; every proposed restraint of his prerogative rendered further encroachment on it less difficult; and his loss of his firmest counsellors, in the earl of Strafford and archbishop Laud, who were successively impeached and put to death, and in others who were driven into banishment, reduced the king to the necessity of consenting to whatever was voted by the parliament, and within the first nine months of the session there was not a grievance publick or private, those as to religion alone excepted, but was redressed, and that with the royal assent. But with regard to religion, imaginary as well as real grievances were made the subjects of complaint; and by the crafty management of the Presbyterians in parliament, supported by the Scotch, the House was brought to seek the expulsion of the bishops from the House of

Peers. The king, too, being compelled to make peace with the Scotch, went to their parliament, and gave his assent to all the acts presented to him: after his return from which, a form of protestation to stand by eac' other in opposing the progress of the Papists, and defending the power and privileges of the parliament, and the liberties of the subjects, as well as the royal person, was drawn up and adopted by the two Houses; by that of the Peers under the terrours of a mob; and ordered to be tendered to the whole kingdom; the command of which the parliament secured to themselves by passing at the same time with the act of attainder against the earl of Strafford, a bill, enacting, that the then present parliament should not be dissolved without the consent of both Houses. Having thus deprived the king of one of his most important prerogatives, and got the mob of the capital to support all their measures, the Commons, or rather that faction which had acquired the guidance of them, had in fact their sovereign in their power; and so careless were they of making a proper use of the sway they had gained, that when informed that a rebellion had broken out in Ireland, and that A. D. 1641. above forty thousand English Protestants had been massacred, so dilatory were they in their proceedings, and so trifling were the succours sent to the lords justices, as to produce the appearance of their wishing to have the rebellion continued rather than extinguished. As through various means the strength of this party increased, the violence of their measures increased with it; they became themselves less guarded in the aggravation of their grievances, and more daring in their false assertions; nor in the propagation of these did the Hampden, so much applauded by many who do not investigate the truth, scruple to put himself forward. The faction succeeded in sowing the most pernicious jealousies of the king in the minds of the people at large; and determining at length to carry their encroachments further than they supposed Charles would yield, they prepared for the final breach which they themselves were bringing on; while the king had not from the mortifications which he had already suffered, learned to abstain from measures, which were capable of being misinterpreted, or were even objectionable in themselves. After a most tedious course of petitions

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and remonstrances, answers and speeches, of tumultuous assemblies manifestly countenanced by the leaders of the Commons, of weak efforts and indefensible steps by the king, while the former proceeded by degrees to take out of the hand of the latter, the command of the forces of the kingdom, and the two Houses, or rather the remnants of the two, did illegally and shamelessly assume to themselves the authority of the whole parliament, the adverse parties came to an issue on the question of calling out the militia, the king issuing a proclamation by which he prohibited the execution of an ordinance, which the parliament (so usually but improperly called) had made on that point; and the parliament publishing a declaration, forbidding all persons to obey the king's proclamation. It must not, however, be omitted, that Charles had in the mean time given his assent to the suicidal bill for excluding the bishops from the House of Peers; while he was preparing by arms for that contest, which it was visible must at last take place, unless he submitted to become solely the puppet of the Houses. When hostilities at length began, the king was much inferior to the rebels both in forces and preparations, yet by the exertions of his friends, and particularly of the queen, and by the valour and activity of his nephew, prince Rupert, the brother of the elector palatine, he became more formidable; but when the parliament had, by concluding a league with them, prevailed on the Scotch to march an army into England, the
A. D. 1644. same prince, by unadvisedly engaging in the battle of Marston-moor, gave an unfavourable turn to the king's affairs: while the superiority of the Presbyterians in the parliament produced the total overthrow of the church of England, and the abolition of its hierarchy. After this the faction, which had hitherto concealed itself among the Presbyterians, found, from the general confusion introduced, encouragement to set up their projected independence; and therefore proposed not only to have the army new-modelled, but to exclude from all commands and offices all members of parliament. The ordinances for both these particulars were voted by the Commons, but were opposed by the Peers: however, the opposition to the first was soon overcome, and, after a contention of four months, the last, which was called the self-denying ordinance, was also

passed by the Lords. The new modelling of the army produced the appointment of Sir Thomas, the son of Lord Fairfax, to the chief command of it, and over whom Oliver Cromwell had gained great ascendancy; and by whose desire, in the face of the self-denying ordinance, Cromwell was sent by the parliament to command the cavalry of his army. With this army he quickly after fought the king in the fatal field of Naseby; after his defeat in which, Charles A. D. 1645. was never able to bring another considerable army into the field; and all his towns were taken one after another; so that, to deliver himself from the imminent danger he was in of falling into the hands of the parliament, he was induced, after some brief negociations to go to the Scotch army; during his stay with which, all the propo- A. D. 1646. sitions of peace which were made, were rendered ineffectual by the king's conscientious firmness in not consenting to the abolition of the apostolically established episcopal government of the church; though he went so far as to cede this, with the exception of only five sees. At length the Scotch surrendering the royal person to the parliament, the king was conducted to Holmby House in Northamptonshire; where he was in reality the prisoner of his own subjects. But the regal power being thus subdued, the two parties who had united in its destruction, now began to separate, and each seek the superiority for itself: the Presbyterians favoured by the majority of the parliament, the Independents, with the crafty Cromwell at their head, supported by the army. By the private practices of this designing villain, the troops were led to prepare a petition, with which the House of Commons was much displeased, though that of petitioning by a multitude of hands was a mode formerly promoted by some of both Houses. The declaration, accompanied with a menace, which the House of Commons made against this petition, increased the discontent already sown in the army; and after some further discussion between them and the House, the former obtained the assent of the last to there being formed for the troops two councils, one called Adjutators, and, apparently by corruption, Agitators, among whom there were none, or very few above the rank of an ensign; and another termed the Council of War, consisting of officers from generals down to captains. Thus

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organized they resisted the parliament's orders to separate and disband them, and, in fact, formed a counter-republick; intended, possibly, by the Divine justice as a scourge for the iniquities of the first. Some of the Agitators seized the person of the king at Holmby, and removed him to Newmarket; and the whole army having entered into a solemn engagement not to suffer themselves to be disbanded or divided, until they had received the satisfaction which they required from the parliament, they advanced towards the metropolis as far as St. Albans. After which they rose in their demands; and, contrary to their former professions, began to interfere in the civil government, by demanding that the House of Commons might be purged, and a determinate period put to the continuance of parliaments, and preferring a charge against eleven members, who, from their abilities and power, did in a manner govern the House. The Commons endeavoured by concession to take away all cause of complaint, but the army were not to be so satisfied: colonel Ireton, Cromwell's son-in-law, being the chief penman of their remonstrances, encouraged and assisted by Cromwell himself, and by colonel Lambert, who, like Ireton, had been a student of the law. On the other hand, the Presbyterians out of the House, and especially in London, took alarm at the increasing ascendancy of the Independents, and a solemn engagement was there entered into for supporting the League and Covenant. When the parliament were greatly embarrassed between the two parties, a city mob compelled them to vote what they required, on which the Speakers of both Houses, and about sixty other members, retired to the army, and claimed its protection; in a short time after which, the general, with a body of horse, advanced to Westminster, attended by the Speakers and those members, who then repaired to their respective Houses. In the mean time the king had been carried about with the army, though otherwise more civilly treated than when in the hands of the parliament; while Ireton and Cromwell amused him with hopes of his obtaining for himself tolerable conditions: yet when the army was once master of the parliament, he was treated more rigorously than ever at Hampton Court, where he was then placed. They sent him propositions for peace, so much worse than

those before offered him, that he rejected them with indignation; and he received repeatedly private hints, that his enemies entertained such designs against him, that it was requisite that he should be on his guard. Alarmed at this he determined to make an effort to escape; but failing in his hope to get off by sea, he put himself into the hands of colonel Hammond, governour of the Isle of Wight, a creature of Cromwell's. Here, on his refusal to give his assent to four acts sent to him by the parliament, by Fairfax's order his servants were removed from him, and no one was permitted to go to him without an express order: quickly after which an attempt to rescue him from his captivity miscarried. The king's duplicity was much complained of in parliament, and particularly by Cromwell; whose proposal to proceed to the settlement of the kingdom without any further communication with the king was accepted by the Commons. There having already been consultations both in the parliament and the army how to destroy his person, these two bodies now acted so together, that the general was desired to guard the parliament; for which purpose he stationed a regiment of foot and one of horse near the Houses. As the English Presbyterians wished to reduce the power of the Independents, so did the Scotch; and this, it should seem, was one motive for their commissioners treating with the king for their sending an army into England for his deliverance: the expectation of which gave rise to several premature insurrections in England and Wales; which being badly managed, far from being of use to the royal cause, only occasioned the death of many of the king's adherents. At length a Scotch army, commanded by the duke of Hamilton, entered England, but was soon met by Cromwell and Lambert, defeated and dispersed; and, in the end, the general and all the officers were taken prisoners: and thus terminated the effort of Scotland in favour of the unhappy Charles. While these military transactions were carrying on, the Presbyterians in the parliament flattered themselves that they should regain their former superiority over the Independents; but the differences which might have arisen between these two factions greatly to the king's advantage, were obviated in their progress by the intemperate zeal of some of the royalists, who assumed a boldness totally unwarranted by

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their own strength. Still the parliament came to a resolution to treat with the king; against which, as contrary to their former resolve of making no more addresses to him, Cromwell, in letters to his friends, strongly protested; and after the news of his victory over the Scotch army arrived, his party manifested the spirits they had regained, by a petition presented to parliament in the true Independent style. While Cromwell pursued his victory by going into Scotland, and giving the adherents of his faction the preponderance in that kingdom, commissioners from the parliament entered into negociations with the king in the Isle of Wight: but while these were carrying on with much delay, the officers of the army, to whom the prospect of a peace was highly disagreeable, met at Windsor, where the head-quarters then were, in a council of war, to endeavour to obstruct a reconciliation between the king and the parliament, and determined to prevent it by force. For though Cromwell, who seems to have been the soul that moved them, was not yet returned from his northern expedition, he had sent Fairfax a reinforcement, which induced them to think themselves able to execute what they had resolved on. A deputation of officers was therefore sent on the

A. D. 1648.

eighteenth of November, with a remonstrance to the House of Commons, in which the army openly demanded, that the king should be brought to justice, and very great alterations be made in the government of the kingdom—a savage and horrid request, which had been preceded by others of the same kind; all resulting from the plots of the Independents, to which the obstinacy with which the Presbyterians sought the abolition of episcopacy, though the king told them he could not in conscience agree to it, finally gave success, to the deserved ruin of the Calvinists themselves. The general now removed colonel Hammond from the custody of the king's person, and assigned it to a colonel Ewers, not only without the consent, but against the will of the Commons, of whose orders he took no notice: thus does the overthrow of legal authority ever lead to military despotism. The king was soon removed to Hurst castle; and the army, under the plea of the parliament's not listening to their remonstrance, and neglecting to take the measures necessary for the publick good, advanced to the capital; which prevented not

the House of Commons from voting, that the concessions made by the king were sufficient grounds for settling the peace of the kingdom. The military force round the parliament continued to increase, and the trained bands, which had hitherto formed its guard, were discharged: forty-one members were then arrested on their way to the House by colonel Pride. Soon after this, proposals were presented by the army for purging the House of Commons of all who agreed not with them; and these proposals were quickly supported by a body of soldiers, who took possession of the door of the House, and prevented many members from entering; a measure which reduced that House solely to Independents; and that same day Cromwell, who had arrived in town the night before, and had had the self-denial to sleep in one of the king's rich beds at Whitehall, sat in the House, which thanked the arch-hypocrite for his great services. The Independents now forming the House of A. D. 1648-9. Commons, that of Peers was compelled to follow all their resolutions, while the former, openly supported by the army, designed to destroy equally, king, monarchy, episcopacy, and Presbytery; and petitions for bringing the first of these to justice were poured into the House, where they met with a thankfull reception. At length a resolution was taken to put the sovereign on his trial, and a committee appointed to draw up the charge; and the king was removed from Hurst Castle to Windsor, and thence taken on the nineteenth of January to St. James's. In the mean time the Commons passed an ordinance for the trial of the king; and on its being rejected by the House of Peers, then reduced to only sixteen, they voted the consent of that House unnecessary to the validity of a law, and that the supreme authority of the nation was vested in themselves. They appointed an hundred and fifty commissioners to try the king, among whom were Fairfax, Cromwell, Ireton, Sir Hardress Waller, Skippon, and Serjeant Bradshaw, who was made president of the court. The principal charge was, that the king had levied war against the parliament, but that he did so not in his own defence was not even attempted to be proved. Before this court Charles was brought three times, and as often was his accusation read in his hearing; but he would not acknowledge the jurisdiction of it, and his judges

would not hear his reasons for denying it: but his refusal to plead was interpreted to be a confession, and sentence of death was pronounced against him; though he earnestly requested to be heard before both Houses, declaring, that he had a very important offer to make them. This sentence was executed three days afterwards on a scaffold raised before the banquetting house at Whitehall, by an executioner in a mask. Charles suffered death with great fortitude; his body was given to some of his servants, and buried at Windsor: but the base bigotry of the governour of the castle, would not permit the burial-service to be read over it. Thus ended the days of Charles the first, more properly than his reign, for that had ceased long before: had he always spoken the truth from his heart, he probably would not have perished by the hands of his subjects; but his want of sincerity gave to more abandoned hypocrites the advantage against him, and the deep craft, and relentless ambition of Cromwell at last brought him to the block. The House of Commons forbad the proclamation of the late king's eldest son under the penalties of high treason, and then voted the abolition of that of the Peers, as an useless body. Thus was the government of the kingdom put into the hands of a residue of an House of Commons, consisting of about fourscore members, who defended their usurpation with much the same jargon, of all authority emanating from the people, and an original contract, which has been since adopted by subsequent demagogues and pseudo-patriots. These Commons, most impudently assuming the name of the parliament, enacted, that the office of king should be abolished as unnecessary, burdensome, and dangerous, and the state be governed solely by the representatives of the people. They then removed every thing that bore the marks of royalty, and chose thirty-nine individuals to form a council of state for the administration of publick affairs under the parliament. After which they tried, condemned, and executed the duke of Hamilton, the earl of Holland, and the lord Capel, with many others in various parts of the kingdom, for having borne arms against the parliament; and though, to increase the number of their own members, of the paucity of which they were themselves ashamed, they professed to permit all who had sate in that parliament to resume their seats,

after signing an instrument called the Engagement, they found an expedient to exclude all from whom any danger to their new government was suspected; and, to support their own authority, they ordered a force of eight and twenty thousand men to be kept up in England, and twelve thousand in Ireland. While the pretended parliament were thus taking measures for rendering permanent the alteration which they had made in the government, prince Charles, then in Holland, assumed the title of king; and from the situation of affairs in Ireland, where, after the retreat of the pope's nuntio, the marquis of Ormond, who had, at the command of the late king, concluded a peace with the Irish rebells, had since made a new treaty with them, and taken several places from the parliament, was induced to think of repairing thither. But the Scotch parliament in the mean time acknowledging his title and proclaiming him, after much negociation, and an intermediate attempt to gain a footing in that kingdom by force, he assented to the conditions which the parliament and kirk proposed, and repairing to Scotland was obliged to take the Covenant ere he landed. The parliament of England, apprized of the negociations carrying on between the Scotch and the king, recalled Cromwell from Ireland, whither he had been sent, and where he met with great success, and left the affairs of the parliament in good condition to the management of his son-in-law Ireton. On his arrival in England, and the resignation of Fairfax, he was appointed general of the armies of the commonwealth, and an army was raised to act against Scotland, where, on the other hand, forces were levied to oppose it. Cromwell marched into Scotland, and after some operations so unsuccessfull as to induce him to prepare for his return to England, by the blasphemous effusions of their ministers the Scotch army were persuaded to expose themselves to attack from the English; and these two fanatical bodies meeting, after a contest partially well supported, Cromwell became victorious. The loss of troops on this occasion obliged the Scotch to be less scrupulous in raising more, and many of the king's adherents were now permitted to enlist, and he himself was crowned A. D. 1650-1. at Scone, and took the command of the army. After some operations he seized an opportunity of leaving Cromwell and his troops behind

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him, and marching into England: but there, instead of being joined by numbers as he expected, few came to him, while his Scotch troops deserted in crowds; and at length having, after a fatiguing march, reached Worcester, he was there overtaken by Cromwell, who leaving major-general Monk in Scotland had pursued the king, and attacked, defeated, and totally dispersed his army; Charles himself with great difficulty escaped,* and, after wandering in disguise two months, reached the coast of Sussex, and thence embarking, at last arrived safely in France. In the mean time Monk reduced all Scotland to obedience to the English parliament: these successes raised the reputation of the new republick throughout Europe; while Cromwell was, in reality, the ruler of it. Scotland being, in fact, conquered, the English parliament passed an act for uniting that kingdom to the English commonwealth. No foreign power being so likely to embrace the cause of Charles as the Dutch, and Cromwell's enemies in the parliament wishing to find in a naval war a plea for reducing the army, by which he was supported, means were taken to pick a quarrel with the States, and a kind of drawn battle in the Channel began the war. It was during the continuance of this, that the third son of the late king, the duke of Gloucester, who had been educated as a private gentleman, was sent by the parliament out of the kingdom, and afterwards joined the king at Paris. After some severe contests between the fleets of England and Holland, Cromwell perceived both that the continuance of the war was a contrivance of his enemies, and that affairs were in such a situation, that either the parliament must be brought under his command, or himself be ruined; after procuring petitions to be presented to the House by the army, in which the time they had sate, and their engrossing the power of the nation, were mentioned with little ceremony, confident that the Commons had lost the attachment of the people, he led a file of musqueteers into the House, and bidding one of them take away that fool's bauble, meaning the mace;

* It was during his retreat from this defeat, that the king having climbed an oak for concealment, heard the people as they passed talk of, and express a wish to gain the reward offered for his person.

he told the members, that they had sate long enough unless they did more good; and, with severe reproaches, turned them out of the House, and locked the door. He afterwards published a declaration to justify this dissolution of the Commons, which was subscribed by the colonels of the army and all the sea captains, and met with general approbation. He then caused the same council of officers who had presented the petition to the parliament to resolve, that an hundred and forty-four persons should, as representatives of the people, be entrusted with the supreme power; many of whom were illiterate men of no birth, and to each of whom Cromwell wrote, summoning him to appear at Whitehall, and take on him the trust to which he was appointed. In the hands of these * Cromwell and his army lodged the supreme power of the nation for the fixed period of sixteen months, with notice that, three months previous to their dissolution, they were to choose their successors, whose authority was to endure but one year, when they likewise were to provide successors to themselves. Five months did this inefficient assembly sit, when they took the step which was from the first intended, by declaring themselves incapable of discharging the trust confided to them, and begging that Cromwell and his officers would take care of the government. Thus invested with a pretended authority, the council of officers declared Cromwell protector of the three kingdoms, A. D. 1653. with the assistance of a council of twenty-one members. To this lord protector the title of highness was given, and he was proclaimed in each of the three kingdoms, all of which were considered as forming but one republick. While the advancement of Cromwell was thus proceeding, some more obstinate contests took place between the Dutch and English fleets; but in a few months after the settlement of the protectorate, a peace was concluded, honourable and advantageous to the new republick. Cromwell did not continue in security in his dignity: the royalists, more especially, alarmed him with conspiracies; neither was he sparing in punishing them. In the mean time, Charles the second suffering great distress in France,

* In this assembly flourished a man, who has gained fame even from the profane ridiculousness of his name, *Praise-God Barebone*.

and dreading from that court something worse than neglect, on giving notice of his intention to quit that country, received some relief from Mazarine; and thus enabled to remove retired to Cologne, where he continued some years, accompanied by the marquis of Ormond, whom the Irish Papists had driven from that island: for these turbulent and bigotted people would not yield obedience to a Protestant, though afterwards they were so reduced by the forces of the parliament and the protector, that most of the families were removed into Connaught, and some lands were there assigned them, while the rest were either given to the adventurers who advanced money for the Irish war, or to the soldiers for their arrears, or else sold to the best bidders. The obedience of Scotland to Cromwell he further secured by the suppressing the general assemblies of the kirk. The protector having called a parliament, found it so difficult to be managed, that he dissolved it again, after it had voted him and his successors a revenue of two hundred thousand pounds a year. Attempts were now made to take advantage of the discontent generally entertained against the usurper, but they were not attended with success. While Cromwell thus triumphed over his opponents at home, he compelled foreign nations to respect him, though not by the justest means. No sooner had he concluded a peace with Holland, than, without provocation, he attacked Spain, and took from her the island of Jamaica; renewing at the same time the ancient treaties with France. Still so many were the domestick enemies which he had raised by his usurpation, that he found very strong measures requisite to repress them; and for this purpose he divided England into a number of districts, over each of which he appointed a major general with very extensive powers, and from whom appeal lay only to himself. But such was the tyranny which these military governours exercised in their departments, that the protector was obliged to diminish the authority which he had given them. Cromwell, still desirous of the sanction of a parliament for the support of the sovereignty which he had assumed, yet dreading the resolves of a free House of Commons, summoned one to meet, but took care that no members should sit in it, who would not be subservient to him. By this assembly

statutes were made for renouncing the title of the king, for the security of the protector's person, and for raising large sums of money, and a specifick request to assume the regal title was made to Cromwell, doubtlessly by his own directions. But he found his friends, and particularly Desborough, his brother-in-law, and Fleetwood, his son-in-law, so adverse to this additional usurpation, that even after a crown had been prepared, he declined accepting it. Still what was called the parliament confirmed and added to the power of his dignity of protector; and after swearing to some articles which they drew up, he was solemnly inaugurated a second A. D. 1657. time. Cromwell's negociation of a treaty offensive and defensive with France, occasioned a league between the exiled monarch and the king of Spain, the former of whom thereby gained something to support him. By the second of those articles to which the protector had sworn, and the whole of which were termed the humble petition and advice, he was bound to summon every year a parliament, consisting of two Houses; he therefore selected a certain number of members to form what he would not call, for fear of offence, an House of Peers, but denominated the other House, and then issued writs for assembling a parliament. But in this, by the measures of his enemies, the majority of the Commons House proved to be in opposition to him, and he found himself supported by little else than the army, which he had filled with fanaticks, who conceived the time was come for the erection of the kingdom of The Christ on earth, and were therefore termed Fifth Monarchy Men. To prevent the Commons proceeding in those attacks on his authority which they menaced, Cromwell quickly dissolved the parliament. Some projects for the restoration of the king, and terminating only in the execution of several concerned in them, followed this dissolution. Of the capture of Dunkirk, and the surrender of it to Cromwell, which now took place, mention has been already made. These occurrences the usurper did not long survive; but, after manifesting much uneasiness and dread of assassination, he was seized with a fever, which put an end to his life. Before he expired, he nominated his A. D. 1659. son Richard his successor in the protectorship; and without opposition did the latter take possession of the vacant office, but wanted

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his father's abilities to support himself in it. His intention to render the army dependent on him was obviated by the officers, with Lambert borough at their head; and by the menaces of these was he obliged to dissolve the parliament which he assembled: on which the grand council of officers, which he himself had been treacherously advised to assemble, thought themselves authorized to arrange the government as they pleased; and, after some discussion, a resolution was

A. D. 1659. taken to restore to their former power the Long Parliament, or rather the remainder of that House of Commons which had sat from sixteen hundred and forty-eight to sixteen hundred and fifty-three, when Cromwell dispersed them: and thus was the nation once more subjected to the tyranny of a body consisting of only forty-two members.* One of the first steps of the restored usurpers was, to engage Monk, who commanded in Scotland, to submit to their government; and he, yielding to circumstances, complied with their invitation. Richard Cromwell did the same, and retired first to Paris, and afterwards to Geneva; but, some years before the death of Charles the second, he returned to his native country, and died at Cheshunt in Hertfordshire, in seventeen hundred and twelve. The parliament and chief officers of the army, to the command of which Fleetwood had, at the request of the officers, been appointed, now strove which should establish themselves in the supreme authority, but the time for the overthrow of both was approaching. Tired of the tyranny which they experienced, the Presbyterians themselves entertaining no hope of recovering that power which the Independents had taken from them, no longer appeared to be enemies to the king, while the situation of affairs gave his friends fresh confidence; who thereon laid a plan for an extensive insurrection, but their project being betrayed and obviated, a partial one only took place, which was quickly repressed. Still the army discerning that it was the design of the parliament to render themselves their masters, endeavoured to bring things to an open breach with them, by

* From their being the last remnant of the Long Parliament, they were significantly nicknamed the Rump; and Lenthal, the Speaker of that parliament, was restored to his former situation.

which they would be enabled to make use of their own superior power. This they at length accomplished; Lambert marched to London with part of the army, seized the avenues to the House of Commons, and prevented the members from assembling. For ten days did anarchy then continue; during which the most urgent affairs being dispatched by a council of ten of their own body, the officers held frequent assemblies in London for the settlement of some form of government. At length they established a Committee of Safety, into whose hands they put the government, and in which Sir Henry Vane, Whitelock, Fleetwood, Lambert, Desborough, and Ludlow, formed a part of the twenty-three members. While the officers thus ruled in England, Monk, who had professed obedience to the parliament, was now obliged to relinquish all thoughts of neutrality, and while the Committee of Safety were sending to him Clarges, his brother-in-law, to bring him to some agreement, he was preparing to march into England for the avowed purpose, (whatever might be his real intention) of restoring the parliament. To facilitate the execution of his intentions, he entered into a negociation with the Committee of Safety; and on the other hand, those who had formed the council of state, to which, under the late government of the parliament, was committed the executive power, privately sent Monk a commission, appointing him general of the armies of England, Scotland, and Ireland; and his own particular friend, colonel Whetham, governour of Portsmouth, declared for the parliament; and a detachment sent to blockade that fortress deserted their officers, and were received into it. Several other desertions to the side of the parliament followed this; when three members of it, Haslerig, Walton, and Morley, who had taken refuge in Portsmouth, being sufficiently strengthened by the deserters that had repaired thither, marched at their head towards London, and Fleetwood, and the rest of the Committee of Safety, wanting capacity and resolution to meet this emergency, consented to the meeting of the parliament, and voluntarily resigned their authority; and thus was the government again changed. The reinstated parliament named a committee for the government of the army, and sent orders to Lambert to disperse his forces; but they, hearing of the new revo- A. D. 1659.

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lution, had put their general under arrest, and he was sent a prisoner to the Tower. In the mean time Monk, having received from the Scotch a supply of money, entered England; and though he received from the Speaker a suggestion, that as the parliament had recovered peaceable possession of their authority, he needed not to take the trouble of coming to London, he continued his march, to assist, he pretended, the parliament in reducing the army to obedience. The members of the House now discerned that he had some further design, and therefore appointed a council of state of twenty-eight members, among whom was Monk himself, and ordered each of them to take an oath of abjuration of both the king and monarchy, and of fidelity to the parliament: nor did they neglect to send, under the plea of doing him honour, two members to observe his proceedings. On his journey, to the many petitions he received from the Presbyterians, requesting the re-admission into the House of the members excluded in sixteen hundred and forty-eight, he returned only the general answer, that he would lay them before the parliament. On arriving within twenty miles of London he sent a request to the parliament, that the regiments in that city might be moved to some distance; which was, after some debate, complied with, and he entered London in triumph. Here, after almost alienating from himself the attachment of the citizens, by falling into a snare laid for him by the Rump, he regained their confidence, by insisting, that the Commons should issue writs for filling up their House, and afterwards give place to a full free parliament. To promote the accomplishment of the former of these demands, he gave all the excluded members a guard, by which they were, without any previous notice to those sitting, conducted to their seats in the House, when the heads of the Independent party thought fit to withdraw; and Monk sent a circular letter to the colonels of all the regiments to apprize them of the change in the parliament. By this renewed assembly Monk was, by a formal act, appointed captain-general of the armies of the three nations; the oath of abjuration of the king was repealed, and all his imprisoned adherents were set at liberty; several changes were made in the militia; the engagement, to be faithfull to the commonwealth without a king or a House of Peers

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was abrogated; and a new council of state appointed, consisting of one-and-thirty members, most of them royalists; and after having issued writs for a free parliament, the House dissolved itself. The republicans now endeavoured, by different applications to Monk, to parry the blow which they saw was coming on them, but their efforts proved fruitless; and the general took care to displace the officers most suspected by him, by offering an engagement to pay ready obedience to the orders of the parliament when assembled, and removing those who refused to sign it. The parliament having met according to the restored constitution in the two Houses of Peers and Commons, the earl of Manchester was chosen Speaker of the first, and Sir Harbottle Grimstone of the last. Two days after the meeting, a letter from the king was delivered to the House of Peers, together with a declaration, promising a free parliament and an amnesty for all but those whom that parliament should except, liberty of conscience, and the payment of the arrears due to Monk's army, the reception of it into the king's service, and a reference of all disputes on contested estates to parliamentary decision. After the reading of which declaration, the Lords voted, that according to the ancient and fundamental laws of the kingdom, the government is, and ought to be by King, Lords, and Commons. A letter to the House of Commons, with the same declaration enclosed, was then delivered, and another to general Monk, to be communicated to the council of state and the army. To the vote of the Peers the lower House readily assented; and the king was restored without any of the conditions which had caused the effusion of so much blood: thus both designing and headstrong men embark in projects, which, after much labour to themselves, and more suffering to others, end in nought! Charles being thus recognized, the House of Commons voted a sum of money to him and each of his brothers. The king was proclaimed with great solemnity on the eighth of May, and A. D. 1660. commissioners from both the parliament and the city of London waited on him at the Hague, from whence he arrived at Whitehall amidst the acclamations of a vast concourse of people, many of whom had probably been equally loud in hailing various usurpers of his authority:—so contemptible is the Vox Populi! On the king's

arrival, the face of England was entirely changed; and [illegible] pleasures, and rejoicings, both publick and private, introduced a dissoluteness of manners, which, under the evil example of the court, increased during the whole of this reign. The king's prime minister was Edward Hyde, lord chancellor, and soon after earl of Clarendon, in whom, for the first years after his restoration, he justly placed implicit confidence; and into his council he admitted not only those who had been most zealous in the cause of his father, but even some Presbyterians. The convention which had restored the king was, by a statute, changed into a parliament; an act of [illegible] with very few exceptions, was passed; money was granted to enable the king to disband the army; and his own revenue was handsomely settled: of the late king's judges, ten only were, at this time, executed. The same day that the parliament adjourned, the king lost his youngest brother, the duke of Gloucester, by the small pox; while the duke of York had privately married chancellor Hyde's eldest daughter. When, at its next meeting, the parliament had dispatched all the business before it, after a very flattering speech from the king it was dissolved: a few days previous to which, the king's sister, the princess of Orange, who had come to England to congratulate him on his restoration, died of the same disorder as her youngest brother.* Although, for two months after his return, Charles noticed not the situation of Scotland, which had been reduced to dependence on England, he at length summoned a parliament in that kingdom, and declared, by a proclamation, that he left to that parliament the examination of the conduct of his Scotch subjects, and Ireland he committed to the care of three lords justices. An insurrection of some Fifth Monarchy men, who, in their fanaticism, fought obstinately, gave occasion to a proclamation, prohibiting all meetings under pretence of religion; which, by the generality of it, was considered as inconsistent with the toleration promised by the declaration from Breda. Charles being now solemnly crowned, the parliament met, to whom the king communicated his intention of marrying the infanta of Portugal, and [illegible]

* The same year the Royal Society was instituted by the king's letters patent.

manifested their own principles by ordering the solemn League and Covenant to be burnt by the hands of the common hangman. They passed, too, the Corporation and the Uniformity Acts, and seemed to go hand in hand with the king's ministers in establishing a strong government and ample revenue. In the mean time, the parliament of Scotland proceeded with equal vigour: the solemn league between the two kingdoms was annulled, the power of the militia was declared to be in the king alone, and episcopacy was restored in Scotland; four Presbyterian ministers coming to London to be consecrated bishops. A. D. 1661. After the close of the session, the new queen arrived from Portugal; as part of whose jointure the king received the town of Tangier on the coast of Africa, and the island of Bombay in the East Indies. Charles now manifested the profuseness of his expenditure, and disgraced himself by selling to the French king the fortress of Dunkirk for two hundred thousand pounds. When the time for the Act of Uniformity's taking place arrived, two thousand Presbyterian ministers vacated their livings, rather than comply with its provisions. The king manifested a wish to dispense, in particular cases, with these provisions; and it has been suggested that this wish originated in his inclination to obtain ampler toleration for the Papists. Neither of these measures corresponding with the sentiments of lord Clarendon, the king's partiality to that great minister and firm friend to the Church of England decreased, and after some time the earl of Bristol, who was a professed Papist, exhibited articles of impeachment against him so manifestly unfounded, that they were unanimously rejected, and the accuser thought proper to abscond. In the following year broke out a war A. D. 1664. with the Dutch; cause for which seems to have been sought in their pretending a right to fish on the British coasts, and the first captures in which were made by the English with little ceremony. In the second year of this war, the plague made dreadfull ravages in London; which compelled the king to retire from the metropolis, and the parliament to meet at Oxford; and ere it ended, the king of France having, according to his treaty with them, joined the Dutch, war was declared by Charles against France. The duke of York having acquired, it was said by his friends, glory enough by defeating

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the Dutch fleet; the command of that of the English was now given to prince Rupert and the duke of Albemarle, general Monk, who, after a most obstinate engagement, were defeated by the Dutch admirals Ruyter and Tromp; but in a second very obstinately fought battle the English had the advantage. The severe losses attendant on these engagements were followed by the conflagration, generally

A. D. 1666. termed the Fire of London; which bursting out on the third of September, continued to rage for three days, and destroyed more than thirteen thousand houses, besides publick buildings; but which in its more distant results was of great benefit to the metropolis, as it led to the rebuilding it after such a manner as to render the city much more airy, and, consequently, so much more healthy, that the plague has not since been seen in it. Proposals for peace having been made by the Dutch, when Charles had secured another grant from the parliament under the plea of the war, the difficulties he had started to the conclusion of a treaty in general vanished; but so long was he ere he would agree to some particular articles, that the Dutch perceiving that he had dismantled a large portion of his fleet to save expenses, sent out a fleet, a squadron of which sailing up the Medway and the Thames, did very considerable damage to his subjects, and brought much greater disgrace on the king, who had squandered in vicious indulgences those sums which had been given him for the defence of the country, while Ruyter kept the coasts of England in

A. D. 1667. continual alarm until the peace was concluded. The dissolute life and inexcusable extravagance of Charles, excited great murmurs and just complaints; in the hope of appeasing these, the king determined to sacrifice his prime minister, the earl of Clarendon, whose presence and counsels were now become highly disgusting to his unprincipled sovereign, and accordingly took from him the seals, entrusting them to Sir Orlando Bridgeman as keeper. The House of Commons afterwards presented articles of impeachment against him, but the Lords not concurring with them, after some dispute, a Bill for his banishment was brought in, passed, and received the royal assent: in the year in which this transaction, so demonstrative of the baseness of Charles's mind, took place, he laid the first stone of the Royal Exchange. The king of France having invaded the

Spanish Netherlands, Charles and his ministers deeming it requisite to take some popular step, formed a triple alliance with the king of Sweden and the States General, to stop the menacing progress of the French monarch. This league furnished a pretence to ask the parliament for more money; and by the time the act for raising it was passed, peace being effected between France and Spain, it was spent, like the rest, on the royal debaucheries; the great companions of which were the duke of Buckingham, and Wilmot, the witty earl of Rochester; while the duke of York directed the counsels of the king: these, consequently, were favourable to the cause of Popery, with which that of absolute power, to give it establishment, appears naturally enough to have gone hand in hand. To promote the execution of his intended measures, the king formed a cabinet council of five persons, from the initials of whose names, which formed the word Cabal, that term was applied to it.* By these, in conjunction with Charles himself and his brother, was taken the resolution to renew the war with the Dutch, that, it has been presumed, the king might thence derive a reason for keeping a military force on foot for the accomplishment of the purposes which he had conceived. The determination to attack the Dutch naturally opened the way for a close alliance with their ambitious neighbour, the French monarch, though the negociation of this was kept secret, and a demand was made on the parliament for a supply because that king was arming; and so ample were the grants made on that demand, as to give rise to a suggestion, that most of the members of the House of Commons received pensions from the king in proportion to the sums of money voted; a charge which the unimpeached purity of more modern parliaments manifestly deprives of credibility. Soon after the decease of his duchess, whom he lost in the spring of this year, the duke of York declared himself, what he had been even before the Restoration, a Papist. The same year, too, was marked by an attempt of one Blood and his accomplices to carry off the crown from the Tower. The enormous extravagance of the profligate monarch having dissipated all the money granted him by the

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* Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, Lauderdale.

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parliament, ere his preparations for war were complete, he had recourse to the infamous expedient of stopping all payments from his Exchequer for more than a twelvemonth, to which he added the no less scandalous measure of seizing all the Dutch ships he could without any declaration of hostilities. Nor was even this last step more inconsistent with the law of nations, than another which he took with the law of England: for in virtue of his supreme power in ecclesiastical matters, he published a declaration suspending the execution of all penal laws with regard to them. Immediately after the publication of this most illegal proclamation, war against the States General was declared by both the French and English monarchs; though, to satisfy the last, his nephew the prince of Orange had been made captain-general and admiral. In this war, though their fleet lost little worse than a drawn battle, the States were despoiled of almost all their provinces, yet the fortitude of the prince of Orange, at length declared stadtholder, continued unbroken. But when the parliament of England was, after an interval of nearly two years, again assembled, the great enemies of Holland, the Cabal, found themselves checked in their projects. The mismanagement of affairs, and the liberty taken with the constitution by the king's declaration of indulgence, with the many new members who had been elected to fill up the vacancies that had occurred in the space of twelve years, made the House of Commons no longer the obsequious respondents to the king's demands, but two parties now appeared in that assembly; and that in opposition to the court so far prevailed, that it was resolved, that the redress of grievances should keep pace with the supplies: and accordingly such were the petitions presented to the king against his declaration of indulgence, that, notwithstanding the opposition of most of his cabinet and his concubines, he cancelled it with his own hands. The king's want of resolution to support the measures of his council, caused the earl of Shaftesbury, whom he had made lord chancellor, to forsake the court, and put himself at the head of the country party: immediately after which change, as if the parliament had received fresh notice

A. D. 1673. of danger to the establishment, the Test Act was brought in, and passed both Houses; and on its receiving the royal assent the duke

of York resigned his post of lord high admiral, and lord Clifford that of high treasurer. While these things were passing on shore, though three engagements were fought at sea, where prince Rupert commanded the English fleet, nothing decisive occurred. The office of lord treasurer was now filled by Sir Thomas Osborn, afterwards earl of Danby; and the duke of York having selected for a second wife Maria d'Este, sister to the duke of Modena, the marriage was solemnized by proxy. Against the consummation of it, however, the Commons on their meeting strongly remonstrated, but in vain; since, to put a stop to the unpleasant resolutions they were framing, Charles closed the session by a prorogation of the parliament. No sooner was this done, than the king took the great seal from the earl of Shaftesbury, and gave it, with the title of keeper, to Sir Heneage Finch. Ere the parliament met again, the duchess of York arrived in England, and when it did assemble, the king perceived that he had lost the confidence of his people, and that something more than words was necessary to dispell the suspicions and fears raised in the kingdom. The sense of this and his necessities disposed him to accept the proposals of peace with the Dutch which he had previously rejected, and a treaty with them was concluded in the space of a very few days. Though the House of Commons thanked the king for this peace, they did not cease to continue their enquiries into grievances, proceedings which caused the king to prorogue them after a session of little more than six weeks. The indolent and lascivious Charles now became the slave of his concubines, and more especially of one, whom, to her own unspeakable reproach, his sister, the duchess of Orleans, had brought him from France, and whom he made duchess of Portsmouth. On the re-assembling of the parliament, the House of Commons manifested considerable jealousy of the court's intention to introduce popery, which the king had long before secretly embraced; and such was the temper they manifested, that a Bill was introduced into the other House for the better security of the church and crown; but a violent dispute concerning their privileges arising between the two Houses, it was deemed proper to end it by proroguing the parliament. The next sessions was closed in the same manner, from the same cause. During the fifteen months

that this prorogation continued, the Papists threw off so much their reserve, and were so openly protected by the court, that great uneasiness was excited among the people, and so loud were their murmurs, that all coffee-houses were suppressed by proclamation. The depredations on the commerce of England which Charles's secret connection with Lewis the fourteenth and his own indolence permitted, made the people look with impatience for the meeting of the parliament; but when that took place, the king's secret and separate views prevented him from engaging in any thing disadvantageous to the French monarch: yet thinking he might procure for him a better peace if he could secure the prince of Orange, he sent for him to England, that he might in person solicit the marriage which he had before proposed with the duke of York's eldest daughter, the princess Mary. The prince accordingly came, and after an obstinate contest between the king and him, whether their agreement on the plan of a general peace, or the marriage should first take place, the prince's firmness prevailed; he was married, and the terms of a general peace between the States General with all their allies and France were settled: shortly after which the prince and his bride embarked for Holland. But Charles's private negociations with the French king seem to have caused the scheme of the peace to be no more heard of, though the former entered into a defensive league with Holland. This he wished the parliament on its meeting to consider as preparatory to a war with France, and to grant him correspondent supplies; but the Commons now knew their sovereign too well to be so deceived by him: yet the news of the rapid progress of the French arms in the Netherlands induced them to expedite a Bill for a poll tax, and address the king to declare war against France; but that Bill passed, the House was adjourned. Ere it sat again, the king had learned that the Dutch were thinking of a separate peace; and, while he was raising forces, they sent him word, that his declaration of war against France was the only measure which could prevent their making a peace. This produced from Charles an answer only disgracefull to himself; and the documents for proving that his efforts were at this time directed to secure to himself absolute power in England by the assistance of the French

appear indeed adequate to their purpose. The States General seeing no reliance was to be placed on assistance from England, after some difficulties concluded a treaty of peace with France. The news of this was in England followed by that of a plot, the leading informant of which was Titus Oates, and for being concerned in which several persons were executed. Very extensive was the investigation that took place both in and out of parliament, and very unsatisfactory the result. That measures were privately pursued for introducing an absolute government, and overturning the Protestant establishment, there seems to be little doubt; neither can much more be entertained, that the death of Sir Edmundbury Godfrey, a magistrate, who had taken Oates's deposition, was owing to that circumstance, but whether the conspiracy extended to the purposed murder of the king, does not seem clear. In the mean time Charles's acceptance of money from the French king to render himself independent of parliaments, was so clearly proved to the House of Commons, that to avoid a continuation of the mortifications which he received from them, he dissolved this parliament by proclamation after it had continued sitting almost eighteen years. The new parliament had in it more members inclined to oppose the king, than even the former. But it should not be omitted, that, ere they met, the duke of York had, by the king's desire, left England with his family. This retreat did not prevent the Commons from passing a vote, that the hopes of his coming to the crown encouraged the conspiracies of the Papists against the king and the Protestant religion. Neither did they stop here; but a Bill was introduced to disable the duke of York from inheriting the crown, which was termed the Exclusion Bill. But when this Bill had been twice read, and the Commons were moreover proceeding to enquire after the pensioners in the last parliament, and the king heard that they were preparing a remonstrance to enflame the nation against him, after passing some acts, and particularly that of the Habeas Corpus, he prorogued the parliament, by which the Exclusion Bill was lost. The proceedings of the English parliament raised the spirits of those meek disciples of the Gospel, the Presbyterians of Scotland; and the great object of their hatred, archbishop Sharp, of St. Andrews,

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whose conduct had not been such as to merit their affection, was at this time murdered by twelve of them, as he was going in his carriage to St. Andrews. This atrocious deed was followed by an insurrection, which rapidly spread, yet was soon suppressed by a defeat which the rebels received from the duke of Monmouth. The king, contrary to the advice of a new council, which he had chosen with a view to popularity, and of which he had appointed lord Shaftesbury president, dissolved the parliament, summoning another

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to meet in little more than three months. In the mean time, the king being seized with an intermittent fever, was advised to send for the duke of York, which he did with great secrecy; and the authors of this advice prevailed with the king to remove the duke of Monmouth from his office of captain general, and send him into Holland: soon after which Shaftsbury was removed from the presidentship of the council. The duke of York, now more powerfull than ever, obtained the king's leave to take up the residence of himself and family in Scotland. While Charles resolved to postpone the meeting of parliament for a twelvemonth, differing so much from his council in the measure, that several of the members resigned their places, while others absented themselves from the meetings, and the few who did remain were directed in their resolutions by the duke of York. A feigned plot was now rumoured, which, from the scheme of it being found in a meal-tub, obtained the name of the Meal-Tub Plot: its objects were to destroy the credit of Oates; to assassinate the earl of Shaftesbury; and to bring a charge of a treasonable conspiracy against several noblemen and others: but the chief instrument in it being detected and apprehended, confessed the whole. The animosity of the two parties which divided the kingdom became still more violent; and the king recalled to court the duke of York; petitions for assembling the parliament, and counter-petitions were presented, and the opponents loaded each other with opprobrious names:—hence those of Whig and Tory. The last a name borrowed from the Irish cut-throats, and the former, signifying sour milk, taken from the Scotch Presbyterians and rigid Covenanters. The Whigs were directed by the earl of Shaftesbury, who, after the duke of Monmouth had returned to England without his

father's leave, attended by twelve others, presented the duke of York to the court of King's Bench as a Popish recusant: on which the king complied with the advice of his ministers, and sent his brother again into Scotland. On the meeting of the new parliament, a resolution quickly passed the House of Commons for the introduction of a Bill to disable the duke of York from inheriting the crown; and such a Bill was accordingly introduced and passed the House of Commons, but in that of the Peers was thrown out on the second reading. After this, William Howard, viscount Stafford, who, with four other peers who were Papists, and accused of being concerned in the Popish Plot, had been some time confined in the Tower, was brought to trial before the Peers, convicted, condemned, and executed. The House of Commons, besides passing various votes highly disagreeable to the king, persisted so strongly in pressing for his consent to a Bill for excluding the duke of York from the succession, that he at length dissolved the parliament; and summoned another to meet at Oxford: the appointment of this city was very far from pleasing to those who wished to use the mob of London to support them against the court; but the king was deaf to all representations against it, and the parliament met at Oxford, with the unusual circumstance of many of the members arriving there with armed retinues. They were permitted, however, to sit but seven days; when, on account of the temper which the Commons discovered, the king abruptly dissolved them. Many were the addresses presented to Charles in praise of this dissolution; nor were those on the other side few in number. The king, now released from the opposition of parliament, betrayed a temper which he had not before manifested, hastening to take vengeance on those who had acted against him. The earl of Shaftesbury and some others of inferior rank were sent to the Tower; and one of the last, a joiner named Colledge, who had shewn himself a strenuous supporter of the Whigs, was prosecuted, or rather persecuted, unto death. In Scotland in the mean time, the duke of York, as high commissioner, opened the parliament, in which an act was passed declaring the lineal succession of the crown indefeasible; and another for the security of the Protestant religion, imposing an oath which many

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refused to take, and particularly the earl of Argyle, who for his opposition to the reception of it, was accused of treason and condemned to lose his head, but escaped from the castle of Edinburgh, and retired to Holland. The king having since the dissolution of the parliament put into the posts of judges, lord lieutenants, and magistrates, men of the court party, and ordered that the Nonconformists should be rigorously prosecuted; the laws against the Presbyterians were zealously executed, and the pulpits resounded with the doctrine of passive obedience on the part of the subject, while none who would tell the king of his duty seem to have had access to him. The duke of York now brought his family again from Scotland, and had great influence over the counsels of his brother; while the violence of the court party only enflamed the fury of their opponents, and a kind of infatuation seized both, the one violently embracing whatever was most contrary to the other. In the midst of these contentions the court having at length obtained a lord mayor and sheriffs of their friends, the duke of York sued Pilkington, one of the late sheriffs, for having said, "The duke of York has fired "the city, and is now come to cut our throats;" and had a verdict

A. D. 1685. for one hundred thousand pounds damages. This year two extraordinary embassies arrived in England, one from the king of Morocco, and the other from the king of Bantam in Java. The king, desirous of being revenged on the city of London for the opposition he had experienced from it, after some other steps brought a Quo Warranto against the corporation, to prevent the judgment on which they submitted to those regulations which he was pleased to impose: but this submission saved not their charter, for the king had judgment entered against them, seized the government of the city, and appointed a new lord mayor during his pleasure. While this affair was going on, information was given of a conspiracy, called afterwards the Rye House Plot, said to be formed for assassinating the king and the duke of York, and exciting insurrections in various parts of the kingdom. On the evidence produced, though far from convincing, besides others, were executed the lord Russel and Algernoon Sidney; yet later information has shewn, that these individuals were not so pure from treasonable correspondence as they ought to have been.

The king's son, too, the duke of Monmouth, was implicated in the charge, but was only banished from his father's court. To save the money which the preservation of it cost, Charles had the fortress of Tangier demolished, and removed the garrison to England to augment his forces at home. The rest of this reign passed in the execution of other expedients to make the royal power absolute, that is, punishing not only those accused of being accessory to the Rye House plot, but all who had spoken harshly of the king or his brother, and indirectly persuading all the corporations in the kingdom to surrender their charters to the king. The great success attending this last measure rendered every city and corporate town dependent on the king, who restored the charters to whom and on what conditions he pleased. All complaints were now suppressed; and the whole kingdom, the city of London, so often the focus of disaffection even when the measures of government deserve applause, not excepted, was entirely subdued to the will of the sovereign. But when Charles had thus triumphed over the liberties of a people, of whom many had certainly shewn themselves unworthy of liberty, as being incapable of duly using it, he was suddenly hurried from the earth by a fit, attended with symptoms much more indicative of poison than of apoplexy. Within a few days of his brother's death, the duke of York was proclaimed king, by the name of James the second. No sooner was the proclamation over, than the new monarch declared to his council his determination to preserve the government as then established both in Church and State; and that he would always take care to support and defend the Church of England: yet, two days after his accession, he went publickly to mass; and in the same week, he, by proclamation, ordered to be collected the customs and duties which had been granted to Charles for the term of his life only: neither did he scruple to publish, that his brother died a Papist. The temper of his judges, as well as that of the king, was manifested by the very scandalous trials and severe sentences of Titus Oates, Dangerfield, the discoverer of the Meal-Tub plot, and Richard Baxter, a celebrated Presbyterian minister. When the parliament met, on the king's repeating the promise he had made to the council, the Commons at once voted him for his life

A. D. 1684-5.

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all the revenue which the late king enjoyed at the time of his decease. In the mean time the parliament of Scotland were equally complaisant, not only granting the king an handsome revenue for life, but declaring the giving or taking the solemn league and covenant high treason. The earl of Argyle, who, as has been mentioned, retired into Holland, there persuaded the duke of Monmouth to make a descent on England, while he did the same in Scotland. But the latter part of their scheme ended in Argyle's capture and execution, and the former succeeded no better; the duke of Monmouth after having landed in the west of England, and got together about five thousand men, being defeated, taken prisoner, carried to London, and beheaded. But this victory afforded James an opportunity of shewing his merciless temper; and by two instruments, fitted to the bloody purposes of such an inhuman tyrant, Jeffries the judge, and Kirk the general, he indulged his thirst for revenge. By the destruction of his two greatest enemies, and the vengeance he took on all who offended him, James struck the whole kingdom with such terrour, that no man dared to oppose him; but to complete his happiness he was desirous of making all his subjects Papists; and the rest of his reign was occupied in endeavours to execute this design. He began with giving the ascendancy to the Papists in Ireland, several of whom were admitted into the privy council of that kingdom; soon indeed so many, that the Protestants, finding themselves in the minority, retired: shortly after which the king determined on having an army of Papists in that country, and colonel Richard Talbot, a violent Papist, was made earl of Tyrconnel, and lieutenant-general of the Irish army, and his appointment was quickly followed by that of Henry, earl of Clarendon, as lord lieutenant. When the parliament of England met, James not only called on them to enable him to continue on foot the army which he had raised, but avowed his employment of Papists as officers in it, and his intention not to permit them to be dismissed. The dislike which the House of Commons manifested of this last, induced the king to prorogue the parliament after a session of only eleven days. This prorogation was followed by several others, and at last by a dissolution. Though the parliament of Scotland acknowledged that

by the fundamental laws of the kingdom the sovereign was invested with the most absolute authority, yet were they not sufficiently obsequious for James in matters of religion; wherefore he sent orders to the earl of Murray, then lord high commissioner, to dissolve, or at least to prorogue them; and by his sole authority he established liberty of conscience. In the lieutenantship of Ireland, Tyrconnel, by means of the queen and Peter the Jesuit, supplanted the earl of Clarendon, and then acted with a violence very prejudicial to the country. But in England the king overleapt all bounds; he dismissed the judges who would not declare that he had power to dispense with the laws, and appointed others more compliant in their places; and when he had thus got it declared that his dispensing power was legal, the Papists, with his permission, openly exercised their religion throughout the kingdom; the Jesuits erected colleges, and four Popish bishops having been publickly consecrated in the king's chapel, were sent down to their respective dioceses, under the title of vicars apostolical. Monks appeared in the habits of their Order at Whitehall and St. James's; and the only way to preferment was to be a Papist, or a promoter of Popery. Another expedient of James's was, an order to prohibit all the inferior clergy from preaching upon controverted points of divinity for fear of raising animosities among the people: a measure which, there can be little doubt, would have been repeated in the present day, had the papal party obtained the victory for which they pretended to hope. As the order above noticed was not obeyed, the king instituted a novel court of ecclesiastical commission, of which the infamous Jeffries, now lord chancellor, was one of the judges; and by this both Dr. Sharp, who had preached in defence of the Church of England, and the bishop of London, who would not censure him for it, were both suspended: while, to support these arbitrary measures, a camp of fifteen thousand men was formed on Hounslow Heath. At length the king's bigotry induced him to send an embassador to the pope to reconcile his three kingdoms to the holy see: but so coldly, or rather with such studied contempt was this embassador, the earl of Castlemain, received, that the king at length recalled him. James having caused a declaration for liberty of conscience to be published in A. D. 1687.

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Scotland, took the same step in England: he then commanded the University of Oxford to admit a Benedictine monk to the degree of master of arts; and this order not being obeyed, the vice-chancellor was deprived of his office. And the fellows of Magdalen, refusing to admit a president of his nomination, were, to the number of five-and-twenty, driven from the college, which was filled with Papists. The king now wished to call a parliament, that an act might pass to really give him the power which he had assumed of dispensing with the penal laws; but he found his conduct was too unpopular to hope for such a return of members as he wanted. Still he continued to trample most openly on the laws; and publickly received a nuntio from the pope, as well as admitted father Petre or Peters, his confessor, into the privy council. When the nation saw their chains so far rivetted that they had no hope of deliverance but through the demise of the crown, when the princess of Orange would succeed to
A. D. 1687-8. the throne, a proclamation for a publick thanksgiving on the occasion made known the pregnancy of the queen; the reality of which, however, some soon began to suspect. In hope to forward his favourite object of the repeal of the Test Act and penal laws, James proposed the measure for the approbation of the prince and princess of Orange, but meeting with as little encouragement there as he did in England, he determined to resort to force, and accordingly issued commissions, which were almost all given to Irish and Papists, for raising additional forces, and likewise increased his fleet. He republished his declaration for liberty of conscience, and issued an order for its being read in all churches. But seven bishops having ventured to petition against this order, and declined to read it, were committed to the Tower. Two days after the commitment of the bishops, the queen was said to be delivered of a prince; during the publick rejoicings for which, the seven bishops were brought to trial in the court of King's Bench, and acquitted, to the great and avowed satisfaction of both people and army. Though the king now saw that he could not depend on the army, he continued obstinately bent on his purpose, while some of the most active members of the Church of England, seeing the danger with which the whole Protestant interest was menaced, formed a strict union

with the Non-Conformists for their common security. This being effected, both Whigs and Tories turned their eyes to the prince of Orange, as the person under whose guidance it was proper to place themselves in resisting the further attempts of the king against their liberty and their religion. A correspondence was consequently opened with the prince, who objected not to the offers made him. With as little difficulty did the States General privately agree to assist the efforts which should be made to free the English from the tyranny under which they had fallen. An armament sufficient for the purpose was prepared in Holland. James seeing these preparations, took measures for the augmentation of his forces; and at length the pensionary of Holland frankly confessed to his embassador the prince's purpose of assisting the English nobility in restoring their government to its ancient state. This notification struck both the king and his council with consternation: the former endeavoured to conciliate the bishops and the city of London, and really so far yielded to the advice of the first, as, in the space of a few days, to reverse the measures he had been taking to establish popery in the kingdom for nearly four years. But the confidence of his subjects could not be regained; and justly, indeed, did they withhold it: since, on the news of the prince's fleet being dispersed by a storm, the king began to recall his concessions. This completed the mistrust entertained of him, and deprived him of the support of all but his Popish subjects. In the midst of his distractions the king caused the prince of Wales to be baptized by the names of James Francis Edward; the pope being godfather, and the queen-dowager godmother. The prince of Orange, to obviate the suspicion which the king endeavoured to raise, that he was coming to conquer England, published a declaration to explain the real motives of his conduct: and a printed letter from the prince to the officers of the army, and another from admiral Herbert, who had joined him, to the fleet, produced a wonderful effect on officers, soldiers, and seamen. After having once put to sea and been driven back by a storm, the prince again sailed, and at length landed his forces in Torbay on the fifth of November, whence he advanced to Exeter, where he halted some days, ere he received any encouragement by being joined by any

A. D. 1688.

individuals of importance: yet at length the resort to him was great, and the desertions from James many. When the king's army was advanced as far as Salisbury, and joined by the sovereign, the chief officers of it expressed an unwillingness to fight against the prince of Orange, who was come to secure their religion and liberties. But this declaration had not on the king's spirits an effect equal to that of the defection of the lord Churchill (afterwards duke of Marlborough) one of his favourites. On this he left Salisbury, as not knowing whom to trust; and on his way to London was at Andover left, too, by his own son-in-law, prince George of Denmark, who was quickly followed by his wife, the princess Anne. The king, in extreme distress from the almost universal defection, assembled the few Protestant peers who were in London, and, consistently with their advice, nominated commissioners to treat with the prince of Orange: but when matters were in a fair way to an arrangement, the Papists about the king and queen persuaded them to retire into France; and the last having obtained a positive promise from her husband that he would follow her, went to Gravesend with her son, and sailed from thence to Calais. And the very next night James himself took water at Whitehall, attended only by three persons, and threw the great seal into the Thames, having previously written to the earl of Feversham to disband the army, and burnt all the writs for the elections not yet sent out, and without making any provision for the government of the kingdom. Near Feversham, however, he was discovered, and brought back to London, where by the fickle mob he was received with acclamations, and replaced in his palace of Whitehall, and resumed the reins of government by publishing an order of council to prevent riotous assemblies, and by releasing a Popish bishop who had been sent to Newgate; neither during his short stay at Whitehall did the incorrigible bigot fail to be surrounded, as formerly, with priests and Irishmen. The prince of Orange in the mean time advanced gradually towards London, and having heard of the king's flight and his return, with the concurrence of the English lords whom he had with him, determined that it was not safe for him to proceed to St. James's, whither the king had invited him, unless his majesty and his Popish guards were

removed to a reasonable distance from London. James being acquainted with this, desired to go to Rochester, whither he was conducted; and the same day his father-in-law left Whitehall the prince arrived at St. James's; and from this time the former became a mere cypher. To the anarchy which now took place it was necessary speedily to put an end: the prince, therefore, assembled all the Lords, both spiritual and temporal that were in London, and desired them to consult on the steps proper to be pursued to effectuate those purposes for which he had declared he came to England. The situation in which the king now was at Rochester, and the unpleasant prospects he had before him, if he continued in England, seem to have induced him to take the resolution of withdrawing to France; which he executed on the twenty-third of December, arriving safely at Ambleteuse, whence he repaired to St. Germain's. James on his departure left behind him a paper, in which he complained heavily of the prince, but offered nothing to make the people of England regret the loss of himself. The king being gone, the Peers, as the hereditary counsellors of the realm, most constitutionally took on themselves to provide for the government of the country, and addressed the prince of Orange, both to take on himself the administration of publick affairs, and to issue letters to the Lords spiritual and temporal to assemble, and to counties, cities, and boroughs, to choose the usual number of representatives within ten days. This assembly was to be called a convention; that term having been by Charles the second already borrowed from the Scotch. As for Scotland itself, the people there were as ready to throw off the yoke which James had imposed on them as the English; and on the prince's assembling the Scotch nobility and gentry then in London, they followed the example of the English peers, and received to their address nearly the same answer as had been given to that of the English. The convention being assembled, a letter to both the Houses was received from the king, who had before written to the members of his privy council, but as this last was not then answered, so the first was returned unopened. In the House of Commons, after a debate of four or five hours, a vote was passed, that James had abdicated the government, and that the throne was thereby become

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vacant. Great debates took place in the House of Peers, and a long conference with the Commons, ere the former consented to the vote; at length, however, the Lords adopted it; and then, after much further discussion, a resolution was passed by each House, "that the "prince and princess of Orange should be king and queen of "England, but that the sole and regal power should be in the "prince only, in the name of both." In consequence of which, after the arrival of the princess from Holland, the crown was formally offered to and accepted by both, a declaration of the rights of the subject having been previously read before them. After this, king William the third and queen Mary were proclaimed. One of the first steps of William's government was, the conversion of the convention into a parliament, by a Bill for preventing all disputes concerning the present parliament: the king and queen were then solemnly crowned. The parliament, at the desire of the former, voted a sum for repaying what the Dutch had advanced to enable him to come to England; and they provided funds for raising a fleet and army: but the Whigs, into whose arms William seems at first to have thrown himself, soon disgusted him by granting subsistence for the forces for no longer than half a year, that he might be more dependent on them. The king's disgust was readily improved by the Tories, and the animosity of the parties rose to a great height; but the further regulation of the succession to the crown which occasioned great debates, was rendered less necessary by the princess Anne being delivered of a son, afterwards named William, and created duke of Gloucester. In the mean time, the king suffered not his attention to be diverted from the interests of the continent: he having succeeded in forming a league against France, the English were easily induced to become a party in it, and war was declared against the former country. The estates of Scotland being assembled in convention, followed the example set them in London; the throne was declared vacant by James's forfeiture of all right to the crown; and this was offered to and accepted by William and Mary, the convention, which was turned into a parliament, again abolishing episcopacy. While these things were passing in the kingdoms he had lost, the superstition and bigotry which James betrayed in

France, rendered him an object of contempt: yet Lewis supplied him with as many forces as he would accept to secure Ireland, and with these and the English which followed him, he landed in that island, where Tyrconnel had a considerable army for his service. Here the most detestable tyranny was exercised on the Protestants, and the tardiness of the succours sent them from England caused complaints in the parliament of that country; from whence at length the duke of Schomberg arrived with an army, but met at first with little success. King William finding his cold and reserved manner rendered him unpopular among his new subjects, endeavoured to change it for something like the social conduct of Charles the second. But when the period allowed for taking the oaths to the new sovereign expired, several of the clergy became nonjurors, and among these were seven bishops, having the primate at their head, and these were suspended from their functions. The king's wishes to have the liturgy of the church of England altered for the accommodation of the dissenters, met with a firm and salutary opposition; and the backwardness which the Whigs manifested in promoting the publick service, and in settling his revenue for life, irritated William against them; while the struggles between them and the Tories so perplexed and fretted him, that he determined to leave the government in the hands of the queen, and retire to Holland; a resolution which he abandoned at the very earnest entreaties of several noblemen of his court. After the king had informed the parliament of his intention to go in person to Ireland, he dissolved it, and on the assembling of another, the Tories appeared to have, if not a majority in it, yet a sufficient number to counteract the measures of the Whigs. In the month of June the king passed A. D. 1690. over to Ireland, and rapidly advancing towards the army of James, soon fought the battle of the Boyne; in which he lost the brave Schomberg, and himself narrowly escaped, but gained a most important victory; as by it the spirits of his father-in-law were so broken that he fled rather than retreated to France; but his principal officers determined to continue the war. During these transactions in Ireland, an engagement took place off Beachy Head between the allied English and Dutch and the French fleet, considerably to

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the disadvantage of the former. The earl of Torrington, who commanded, was afterwards tried and acquitted: but great consternation and discontent were raised in the nation, though the queen exhibited singular proofs of courage, activity, and discretion. After some transactions of various success, king William left Ireland, and returned to England: but sent the earl of Marlborough to Ireland, whose expedition, which lasted but thirty days, gained him great reputation. On the meeting of the parliament, it appeared, that the king's courage and the queen's discretion had acquired them considerable esteem; large supplies were quickly granted, and the king acquainted the Houses with his purpose of going to Holland, which he executed in the following January. In the mean time a conspiracy for the restoration of James was discovered, and two of those accused were tried and condemned, after nearly the same manner of which complaint had been made in the reign of James, nor was more mercy now shown than was manifested then. After the discovery of this conspiracy, the nonjuring bishops having declined to exercise their episcopal functions, even though the oaths were dispensed with, the king filled up their sees, and Tillotson was made archbishop of Canterbury. While these things gave rise to a most virulent paper war in England, in Scotland the Presbyterians acted with such folly, violence, and tyranny, as rendered them equally odious and contemptible; and by the peevishness and injustice of their transactions the king was impelled to dissolve their general assembly. After he had settled the plan of operations for Ireland, William returned to the continent, where no great advantage was gained either by his own, or the army opposed to him. But in the mean while, general Ginckel, who commanded in Ireland, there vanquished the partizans of James, and by giving permission to all who would to retire from thence under a treaty concluded at Limerick, saved the island from being any *longer* a seat of war, though, by the goodness of the terms granted to those who had committed such barbarities, he gave great disgust to the Protestants. The parliament of England, after the king's return from the continent, granted him large supplies; but an enquiry was commenced into the causes of the ill success of the fleet, when the commander, admiral Russel, proving, that he had carefully

adhered to his orders, the enquiry was dropped. In Scotland, the Presbyterians, whom the king had at first so highly encouraged, became, through their sour implacability, objects of his aversion, while they also began to lose all respect for his person and government. The hatred thus conceived was corroborated and extended by a diabolical massacre under William's order, but obtained by misrepresentation, executed in the valley of Glencoe, where eight-and-thirty persons were suddenly, and after the greatest show of friendship, put to the sword, and the greater part of the women and children in the glen were left to perish by the cold. The king being again gone to Holland, a scheme of a descent on England was planned between James and the king of France; but the English ministry being informed of it, such precautions were taken as broke the measures of the enemy, and particularly admiral Russel gained a naval victory on the coast of France, which decided the fate of James's expedition. King William being unsuccessfull in Flanders, A. D. 1692. the discontents in England increased, the people being divided into Williamites, Jacobites, and discontented revolutioners, in whose ridicule of each other all patriotism was laughed at as an hypocritical pretence. The practice of parliamentary bribery had a most pernicious influence on the morals of all ranks; and the expedient, which was first used in this reign, of establishing funds of credit for raising supplies, gave rise to what was called the monied interest, whose wealth occasioned them to run into the most intemperate extravagance; an example soon caught by the vulgar, when the land was deluged with a tide of ignorance and profligacy. The king after his return found in the parliament, when it met, much discontent; some arising from the treatment given to the princess Anne, whose favourite was the wife of Marlborough, now in disgrace; and some from an opinion, that the privileges of the Peers had been infringed in the case of that nobleman; in the latter William, by giving way, prevented further discussion. The Commons, after long debates, voted every thing the ministry proposed: a land tax was voted and mortgaged, together with other very large supplies. After the session was closed, the king again repaired to the continent; where, having lost one battle and a fortress or two,

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he, towards the end of the year, returned to England: the naval transactions of this year were all to the honour and advantage of France. When the parliament met, as there were violent debates, so the progress and the success of corruption became both great and visible. The supplies demanded and granted were very large, and the Company of the Bank of England was now by statute established; and great were the complaints made of the acts of oppression committed by those who had the conduct of affairs in Ireland. The following year William, as usual, passed over to the continent to take the command of the allied army; but the campaign produced nothing decisive: that at sea was more honourable to the English than the transactions of the former year. The king having returned in November, soon met the parliament, by which a Bill for triennial parliaments was passed; and, ere the end of the year, the queen fell a victim to the small pox, in the thirty-third year of her age. The enquiries pursued in parliament disclosed a scene of venality and corruption, which would make the generality of the corrupted, even of this age, blush. After the king had prorogued the parliament, he appointed a regency of seven privy counsellors to conduct the government during his absence. The parliament of Scotland was as favourable to the king as that of England; and a statute for erecting a publick bank was passed in that kingdom, too. The campaign in Flanders was signalized by the capture of Namur. William, on his return to England, determined on the dissolution of the present, and the calling of a new parliament. After this had assembled, and was busily employed in attending to many complaints, a conspiracy against the king's life was discovered, and information received of an intended invasion of England by James. This last was defeated by the appearance of an English fleet off Calais, and the former by the confession of one of the conspirators, though himself a Papist: a number of trials and executions ensued. In the spring William returned to Flanders, but the campaign was there distinguished by no particular transaction. On the king's return to England he found much perplexity prevailing from the sinking of publick credit, and the stagnation in the circulation occasioned by the re-coinage which had been some time going on.

A. D. 1693.

A. D. 1694.

A. D. 1696.

But these difficulties were met by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Montagu, and the parliament with equal spirit, and from the taxes imposed to furnish the necessary supplies, not one member of the commonwealth, who could be supposed able to bear any part of the burden, was exempted. The preliminaries of peace, of which both France and the allies, but particularly the first, stood in need, having been settled, William went to Holland, that he might be near the place of negociation for a general peace, which it was agreed should take place at Ryswick; and after several months spent in treating, a peace was concluded, in which the emperour was deserted by his allies. A. D. 1696. William having returned to England, on meeting his parliament suggested the expediency of still keeping an army on foot: a proposition which was received with very great jealousy, yet so far agreed to, that the Commons at last voted maintenance for ten thousand soldiers, and three thousand marines. Through the patronage of the Whigs a new East India Company was incorporated, with very great injustice to the old; and that party are stigmatized as being at this period the most mercenary and corrupt undertakers that had ever been employed by any king or administration, since the first establishment of the English monarchy. The session being ended, the king dissolved the parliament; after which he went to Holland, for the sake of treating more privately with the French king on the subject of the Spanish succession; but left orders in England for keeping on foot six thousand men more than the parliament had voted. The partition treaty was concluded with as little sincerity on the part of Lewis as A. D. 1698. of integrity on that of William. When the latter returned to England, the new parliament disgusted him highly by reducing the military establishment, and obliging him to send away his Dutch guards. After the session was closed, the king went to Holland, and on his return from thence again met his parliament; when the Commons returned to his speech a sullen remonstrance, which it by no means merited. Ere the session closed, a second partition treaty was made and signed. In July the king went to Holland; and at A. D. 1700. the end of the same month, the duke of Gloucester died, in the eleventh year of his age. After the king's return, the news of the

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Spanish king's decease arrived, and that he had by his will appointed the duke of Anjou sole heir of the Spanish monarchy; which will, in breach of the partition treaty, Lewis the fourteenth accepted. William concealed his resentment for a time, and dissolved the parliament; but believing that a conjunction of the monarchies of France and Spain would prove fatal to the liberties of Europe, he lent an ear to the embassador which the emperour had sent to explain his title to the Spanish monarchy. When the parliament met, the House of Commons having, after some time, called for the treaties between England and the States General, addressed the king to enter on such negociations as would most effectually conduce to the mutual safety of Great Britain and the United Provinces, and to the preservation of the peace of Europe: the House of Peers addressed him to the same purpose. The king having recommended a further settlement of the crown, as the duke of Gloucester was dead, after certain conditions had been resolved on, a statute was passed for declaring the princess Sophia, duchess dowager of Hanover, next in succession to the crown of England, after the heirs of the body of the princess Anne, and limiting the crown to the heirs of the body of princess Sophia, being Protestants. The partition treaty was now severely censured by the parliament; and this circumstance, so mortifying to the king, closed the publick transactions of the seventeenth century in England.

The History of Sweden resumed, and continued to the end of the 17th century.

Whether Sigismund was not formally deprived of the throne of Sweden until the fourth year of this century, or quite at the commencement of it, it was at the latter period that the states invested duke Charles with absolute power, and, soon after, they fixed the succession in the male line of his issue. No sooner had he obtained the throne, than he entered on an expedition into Livonia to oppose the Poles; his war in which country was, for some time, unsuccessfull only; and even at last he was diverted from pursuing it by a renewal of hostilities by the Danes; under which attack the states refused to assist him with the necessary supplies; conduct which so much affected the monarch as to bring on a stroke of either apoplexy or palsy, from which he never perfectly recovered. The Danes, encouraged by this, demanded exorbitant terms of peace; when the

states of Sweden, on a second application, manifested more willingness to support their king: whose arms, too, on the side of Russia, met with considerable success. In the war with Denmark, prince Adolphus of Sweden, afterwards the great Gustavus, signalized himself; and while he was giving an earnest of his future glory, his father, Charles the ninth, was seized by death. The prince, being A. D. 1611. still in his minority, tutors were appointed for him. At his accession Sweden was involved in war abroad, and at home her treasury was exhausted: yet, on the meeting of the diet, the young monarch was, from the abilities he manifested, deemed able to hold the reins of government: and he excited a still higher opinion of his understanding by the choice he made of able ministers; at the head of whom was placed the great chancellor Oxenstiern. The difficulties which Gustavus found in his war with Denmark, induced him to make peace with the monarch of that country; the conclusion of which enabled him to attend more to Russia, the crown of which was offered to his brother Charles Philip; but lost, from Gustavus not being able to decide sufficiently soon, whether he should accept it himself, or let his brother have it. In the mean time he applied himself to internal regulations highly salutary to his kingdom. But when the Russians added to their refusal to repay the money which had been lent them by Sweden the unexpected election of a czar, the king's pride was so piqued, that, to revenge himself, he entered the province of Ingria at the head of an army. But hostilities were soon suspended, and a peace granted the Russians on their cession of the province of Livonia, with four towns besides, and paying nine thousand pounds to the Swedes. Sigismund, king of Poland, having laid a base scheme to seize the person of Gustavus, while he pretended an anxious desire for peace, the Swedish monarch immediately after his marriage with the daughter of the elector of Brandenburg, entered on a war with Poland, by laying siege to Riga, which, after a very gallant defence, he took by capitulation. After this, with the interruption of a one and a two years truce, the war with Poland was continued with great success; till, by the defeat of an allied army of Poles and Imperialists, and what the former suffered from the plague, they were induced to agree to a truce of six

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years. Relieved from this enemy, Gustavus, urged by resentment at the emperour for having assisted the Poles, and other motives, determined to march an army into Germany. In this project he obtained the concurrence of the states of Sweden: for the execution of it he had an army of sixty thousand veterans, not only Swedes, but Poles and Danes, and ten thousand British, and a fleet of more than seventy sail. He invited the Protestant states to unite in his design of humbling the House of Austria, and protecting the oppressed Protestant interest; nor did their backwardness discourage

A. D. 1630.

him. He effected a landing at Usedom on the twenty-fourth of June, and the imperialists immediately evacuated all the fortresses in that neighbourhood. He soon was enabled to advance to Stettin, when the duke of Pomerania consented to receive a Swedish garrison, and incorporated his own troops with the king's army: the rapidity of his success threw the empire into confusion. Amidst its distractions the supreme command was disputed by a number of candidates; but at length it was conferred on count Tilly, with the commission of field marshal. Notwithstanding the abilities of this opponent, great was the progress of Gustavus; he penetrated deep into the empire, made himself master of Frankfort on the Oder, and induced the electors of Brandenburg and Saxony to enter into a treaty of alliance with him. Having, after some further operations, taken a position near the Elbe, he was attacked in it by Tilly; by the repulse of whom he advanced his own reputation, and diminished that of his opponent. After this action Gustavus continued in the intrenchments he had formed, until requested by the elector of Saxony to come to his relief, Tilly having invested Leipsick: then having formed a new and closer alliance with that elector, on the news of the surrender of the city, and the pressing solicitations of his ally, he marched to give the imperialists battle; and, after a most bravely contested engagement, obtained a decisive victory. Gustavus after this battle penetrated into Franconia, and thence advancing towards the Rhine, took Francfort on the Maine, and then Mentz. The Swedes did not discontinue their operations even during the winter; and, in the following season, their king pursued his conquests into Bavaria; in which electorate he had another engagement

with count Tilly, in which that commander received a mortal wound. Gustavus continued to advance in Bavaria, but was disappointed in his intention of getting possession of Ratisbon. In no very justifiable revenge of the barbarities that had been exercised against the Protestants of the empire, the Swedish conquerour laid some cities in ashes, and punished the peasants for killing the stragglers from his camp by burning their houses. But the Swedish arms were not altogether successfull against the imperialists; the commanders of Gustavus suffered checks in various parts; while the forces led by him were inferior to those which threatened to oppose him. At length the elector of Bavaria having joined Wallestein, who had succeeded in the command of the imperial army, to avoid being compelled to fight at a disadvantage, Gustavus fixed his camp in a strong post, but after some weeks having received a reinforcement, he attacked Wallestein in his camp, but was repulsed with considerable loss. After this, finding himself unable to either dislodge Wallestein, or bring him to a battle, he decamped, when the imperial generals immediately marched for Misnia; thither, to defend the elector of Saxony, Gustavus followed him, and at Lutzen attacked him with the greatest impetuosity, and in the action was himself killed: his troops, however, continued the engagement with undaunted courage, and secured the victory. The fall of Gustavus plunged Sweden into the deepest affliction: the crown was settled on a female infant, and the nation was menaced with all the ordinary evils of a long minority; while they had to maintain a foreign war with an exhausted treasury and a ruined commerce: but the victory of Lutzen contributed to support their spirits. Of the army which had gained it duke Bernard, of Weimar, took the command; of the greatness of whose abilities Wallestein was aware, but not so the emperour. Christiana, Gustavus's only child, was now proclaimed queen of Sweden, being but six years of age, and the regency was placed in the hands of five great officers of the state; the chief direction of affairs being entrusted to the chancellor Oxenstiern. He exerted his utmost to preserve the confederacy unbroken; yet in Silesia the Swedes were defeated by Wallestein, and at last driven out of that country. The Swedish generals and those of their allies

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had many successes; but at length the young king of Hungary arriving with an army in Bavaria, an action took place near Nordlingen, in which the Swedes were defeated, their general, Gustavus Horn, was taken prisoner; and so decisive was the blow which they received, that they never afterwards appeared so formidable. Notwithstanding all the exertions of Oxenstiern, who resided in Germany, the allies began to fall off one after another; and though both the states and the chancellor sought nothing so earnestly as an honourable peace, they could not obtain any terms but those of an
A. D. 1635. entire restitution of their conquests. Oxenstiern, therefore, repaired to the French court, and there made a treaty, which yet availed little, as it was never observed. The elector of Saxony made peace with the emperour, and prepared to assist in driving the Swedes out of Germany. In this implicated state of affairs, the chancellor purchased the friendship of Poland for twenty-six years by the cession of Prussia; and a victory of the Swedish commander, Banier, over the Saxons, alone saved the Swedes from being cut off from communication with the Baltick. Still the higher Germany was entirely lost to them, and the crown of Sweden was deprived of all its allies, except the landgrave of Hesse. Yet the war was continued with great spirit and various success for eight years, when a new enemy was opposed to Sweden in the king of Denmark, and soon
A. D. 1644. after another, in that of Poland; and against all these enemies did the Swedes support themselves with the greatest magnanimity, having, indeed, the benefit of a diversion, caused by the French attacking the emperour. The war with Denmark, however, lasted not long; by the mediation of France and Holland a peace between the two northern crowns was concluded, much to the advantage of the Swedes, who had gained several advantages over that enemy. After their peace with Denmark, the Swedish commander-in-chief, Torstenson, having concluded a truce with the elector of Saxony, determined to carry the war into the hereditary dominions of the House of Austria; and being opposed by an imperial army, he gained an important victory over it, and then penetrated through Bohemia into Moravia. But the gout obliged this commander to resign his charge to Wrangel, who led the army, much afflicted with

sickness, safely back into Hesse, and, after repulsing a body of imperialists, joined the French army under Turenne. After separating again from these, Wrangel manifested great abilities in a long course of operations. While these were going on, Charles Gustavus, count palatine, who had served with great reputation under Torstenson, so attracted the regard of queen Christina, that he ventured to propose a marriage to her. Though the queen did not accept his offer, she had already determined to raise him to the throne; and to excite an esteem for him in the minds of her subjects, she gave him the chief command of the troops in Germany, where he would have an opportunity of displaying his courage, a quality which the Swedes principally admired. Being arrived in Germany, but unable with the reinforcement he brought to join the main army, after penetrating into Bohemia, he took up winter quarters there. But now the negociations, which had been long going on, drew to a conclusion; and at last a treaty was agreed on, by which there were secured to Sweden the duchies of Bremen and Verden, all Upper Pomerania, part of the Lower, the city of Wismar, and the Isle of Rugen, with a gratuity of five millions of crowns to the army. Christina having procured repose to her subjects, obtained the nomination of Gustavus as her immediate successor, and she herself and the states ratified the appointment. A. D. 1650. This business arranged, Christina, whose great foible was vanity, began to affect great indifference to what she had, power and grandeur, and manifest a warm desire to be accounted wise and learned: poets, painters, and philosophers, became her favourites; but while she patronized the arts, she betrayed a gross want of taste. At length she announced to Gustavus her intention of resigning the crown to him; but both he, and the principal members of the state, so earnestly and so solemnly intreated her not to take that step, that she laid aside her design, on condition that she should not be pressed to marry. But two years after she suddenly resumed the purpose of resigning, and announced it to the senate; and after having settled with the hereditary prince Gustavus, the revenue to be secured to her, she assembled the states at Upsal, and on an appointed day, formally A. D. 1654. resigned the crown to her cozen Gustavus; and having lately

apostatized to popery, she quitted Sweden, and went directly to Rome, where she chiefly resided to the end of her life. When Charles Gustavus, under the title of Charles the tenth, succeeded to the kingdom of Sweden, the reputation which it had obtained by the achievements of Gustavus Adolphus, and of the officers and soldiers which he had formed had begun to decline, its treasury was exhausted, and its people oppressed with taxes. To recover its fame a most unjust measure was adopted by the new monarch, and an excuse was found for commencing a war against Poland, which country he very rapidly over-ran, compelling its king, Casimir, to abandon it. While he was thus engaged, the elector of Brandenburgh made an attack on Prussia, but Charles quickly obliged him to acknowledge that country to be a fief of Sweden. This rapidity of success spread alarm among all the neighbouring powers, which the Poles perceiving, they were encouraged to withdraw the obedience which they had unwillingly promised to the Swedish monarch; Casimir returned, was received by his subjects, and when Charles marched from Prussia to stem the revolt, though he had at first some success, his troops were reduced to the greatest distress, and he was obliged to retreat with considerable loss into Prussia; where he concluded a treaty with the elector of Brandenburgh, by which he ceded to him the entire sovereignty of Prussia for his assistance against Poland. With this Charles gained a great victory; still he was not warmly supported by his ally, nor did the manifest superiority of his troops procure him any decided advantage in Poland. On the other hand, as Russia had already attacked the Swedes, Denmark now did the same, and subsequently Austria declared for Casimir, and sent an army into Poland. Against Denmark Charles thought proper to make very vigorous efforts, and soon did he reduce her king to accept peace on terms advantageous to Sweden. But this lasted not long: the measures pursued by the Danish monarch induced Charles to deem himself justified in preventing a renewal of his attack, and he accordingly made an unexpected descent in Zealand, assaulted, and that not succeeding, blockaded Copenhagen; neither did he receive any advantage from this; but his troops in Funen having suffered a defeat, while he was

making vigorous preparations to revenge himself, he was attacked by an epidemical disease, of which he died in a few days. His son, Charles the eleventh, being a minor, the states and the regency agreed to get rid of the war on any terms not very disadvantageous. A. D. 1660. A treaty of peace with Poland was signed in less than three months; in which were included the emperour and the elector of Bavaria; another with Denmark in less than seven weeks more. Soon after which the disputes with Holland were terminated, and peace was concluded with Russia. Sweden being now considered of importance in the scale of Europe, Charles the eleventh became, after some years, a party in the triple alliance to curb the power of France; A. D. 1678. but afterwards entered into a treaty with Lewis the fourteenth: yet when he perceived, that the Dutch were in danger of utter destruction from the French king, he offered his mediation for the termination of all differences; but being incensed by the emperour's conduct he attached himself more closely to France, by which he became involved in a new quarrel with the elector of Brandenburgh; in which, after some success, the Swedes experienced a great reverse, A. D. 1675. and were attacked and defeated on all sides. But the king having himself taken the command of his army had some success, and manifested both ability and great courage: yet at sea great were the losses of the Swedes, and in Pomerania they were gradually dispossessed of every town and fortress. But, by the interposition of the French, by the forces of whom those of the elector of Brandenburgh were defeated, a peace was made with that prince, and a promise obtained that he would not assist Denmark: on which king Frederick, seeing the necessity of terminating the war, agreed to a peace, on the condition of restoring to Sweden all which she possessed at the beginning of the war. This treaty led to a marriage between Charles and the princess Ulrica Eleonora, daughter of Frederick the third. Charles now convoked the states to consider of some remedy for the evils which the war had produced; and to assist the revenue they laid some taxes on the peasants; but inconsiderable were the burdens laid on the nobility. The power of the senate was now, too, abridged; and the sovereign became nearly independent, by assuming the power of consulting them on such

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points only as he should please: while a new department of state was instituted, called the grand commission, which enquired into all the acts of the ministry, and punished the usurpations and exactions of the senate. Four years after this, by raising the nominal value of the coin, while the debts of the crown were cleared, its creditors sustained a loss, which involved many families in ruin. While Sweden cultivated peace with all her neighbours, the nobles of Livonia presented strong memorials against the curtailment of their privileges; and the most distinguished of their deputies, named Patkul, was so strong in his language, that being convicted with others of high treason, he was condemned to death, and escaped only by flight. While Charles was striving to effect a general pacification in Europe, he was seized with a disorder, which cut him off
A. D. 1697. in the forty-second year of his age. Charles the twelfth, the son and successor of the deceased monarch, was a minor at the time of his father's death, and left under the tuition of his grandmother, the widow of Charles the tenth, in the regency with whom were joined five senators. The young king was, at his accession, fifteen: by his father's will his majority was deferred until he should be eighteen, but he soon found means to obviate this, and the whole power was resigned to him, almost as soon as he expressed his wish to have it. But this monarch's youth and supposed incapacity induced the kings of Denmark, and Poland, and Peter, the czar of Muscovy, to attempt to wrest from Sweden all the acquisitions she had made since the accession of Gustavus Adolphus. The Danes began the attack on the young duke of Holstein, who claimed the protection of Charles: but such was the animation with which this last acted, that by landing in Zealand, and preparing to besiege Copenhagen, he
A. D. 1700. obliged Frederick to sue for peace, and in six weeks time finished the war, begun by the most powerfull of his enemies. He next turned his arms against the czar, who had invested Narva, and attacked the besieging army, strongly intrenched as it was, and amounting to eighty thousand men, with no more than eight, defeated his enemies, forced their intrenchments, killed thirty thousand, took twenty thousand with an hundred and fifty pieces of cannon, and dispersed the rest: after which victory he behaved to

his prisoners with the greatest generosity: and thus closes the history of Sweden for the seventeenth century.

The History of Denmark resumed.

Christian the fourth, whom we left on the throne of Denmark at the end of the sixteenth century, could not forget that his ancestors had worn the crown of Sweden; and Charles the ninth of that country beheld with uneasiness so many of what he deemed fiefs of this crown in the hands of the Dane. This mutual jealousy produced complaints and upbraidings which terminated in a war, which Frederick began by the siege and capture of Calmar: but the siege A. D. 1611. of the castle his general was, by the Swedish monarch, compelled to raise. Christian, however, having gained several little advantages resumed it, and forced the governour to surrender. So many other successes followed, that Charles, under the irritation caused by them, sent Christian a challenge in terms the most opprobrious, but it was declined with contempt. On the accession of Gustavus Adolphus, things changed greatly to the disadvantage of Denmark, yet the Swedish monarch being embarrassed with the Russians, Christian so far retrieved the honour of his arms, that he was able to conclude a peace on equal terms. Not only complaints having been made, but A. D. 1613. menaces uttered to procure a diminution of the duties levied in the Sound, which had been greatly augmented during the war, Christian, to avoid a rupture with the Dutch, consented to lessen them. No ambitious sentiments, no jealousy or resentment, destroyed the peace of Denmark for a series of years. At length, however, Christian entered into a league for the relief of the elector palatine, and was consequently drawn into military operations in Germany, in which he suffered a very severe defeat from the imperial general, count A. D. 1626. Tilly. From this time his affairs began to fall into disorder: driven out of all his places in Lower Saxony, he was pursued into Holstein, which became the seat of war; and there, such was Tilly's success, that to the very last towns Christian retained he was obliged to set fire. After a short gleam of success, and then a return of ill fortune, the king was induced to make peace with the emperour on such A. D. 1629. terms as he could obtain. After peace was thus concluded with the emperour, a difference arose with the city of Hamburgh, which proceeded to hostilities: but these were laid aside on account of a

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jealousy of Gustavus, conceived by Christian at his being placed at the head of the Protestant league: yet the quarrel between the two kingdoms did not break out until general Torstenson burst suddenly into Holstein, and took several places: thence he entered Jutland, and made himself master of almost the whole country. This irruption the Swedes justified by the information they had received of the hostile designs of Denmark. The vigilance, activity, and address of Christian prevented the further progress of the enemy; and he at length prevailed on the emperour to take measures for his assistance. But ere they could be carried into execution, Christian had exposed his person in one naval engagement, and in a second all the ships of his fleet but two were either taken or destroyed; and

A. D. 1645. he was prevailed on by the French embassador to conclude a peace on no very easy terms. In little more than two years after the

A. D. 1648. conclusion of this treaty, Christian was seized with a distemper which quickly carried him off. Notwithstanding the inclination entertained by the nobles of Denmark to pass by the lawfull heir, and set Valdemar, the illegitimate son of the late king, on the throne; the former ascended it under the name of Frederick the third: he found his kingdom in the utmost confusion; the nobility insolent to the monarch, and oppressive to the people; the land forces destroyed, the marine ruined, and the treasury exhausted. One of the king's first steps was, the conclusion of a treaty of alliance with the Dutch, who soon after applied for his assistance, on being in expectation of a war with England; and he did most treacherously and iniquitously seize a fleet of English merchant vessels, whom he had enticed into his ports. Little more than two years after this, the states of Denmark acknowledged Christian, Frederick's eldest son, as his successor, and did homage to him as such. The jealousy entertained by the Danish monarch of the success of Charles the tenth of Sweden

A. D. 1657. induced him at length to commence, very unjustly, a war against that kingdom. His operations on land proving unsuccessfull, he made a new alliance with Holland, under which reciprocal assistance to a greater extent was covenanted for. The operations of the Swedes that now followed have been already detailed; it is sufficient, therefore, here to say, that their success led to a peace, on the con-

clusion of which the monarchs came to an interview, in which the unsuspecting confidence exhibited by Charles, was equalled by the integrity of Frederick's conduct. But this peace was soon broken by the iniquitous Swede: he had discovered too much weakness in Denmark to withstand the temptation of again attacking her: hostilities were renewed, and Copenhagen blockaded by land and sea. Frederick, finding all remonstrances against this treacherous conduct vain, diligently prepared for a resolute defence, and was most nobly seconded by his subjects. By these means the city was defended, until the Dutch fleet on one side, and the elector of Brandenburgh on the other, came to the assistance of Frederick. Charles then saw he must either take the city by assault, or lose much of his hope of conquering Denmark: he made, therefore, a vigorous attempt at the first, but received a very destructive repulse. The appearance of an English fleet in favour of Sweden obviated the assistance the Dutch would have afforded Frederick: at length, however, France, England, and Holland assumed the parts of mediatours. Notwithstanding which the Dutch fleet continued to act in favour of Frederick, and, by the help of the forces aboard it, an important victory was gained over the Swedes. But the Dutch admiral was, with all the meanness of political craft, instructed not to give the Danish monarch too great a preponderance. Though the negociations for peace continued, Charles would not submit to the terms proposed, but made yet another unsuccessfull attack on Copenhagen; and would probably have prosecuted the war, but, happily for Denmark, her ambitious enemy was taken off by death: an event which led to the conclusion of a peace. This was no sooner established than Frederick assembled the states to consider of means of re-establishing the publick affairs, and relieving the people, nearly ruined by the war. The Commons now stated to the nobility the deplorable situation of the people, and the impossibility of raising the supplies, unless the nobles would consent to pay their share of the impositions. The nobles treating this representation as most highly presumptuous, and declaring that the people were vassals, and should remain such, the Speaker of the Commons told them, that they were unworthy of the privileges which they enjoyed, and

threatened, that the weight of subjection should fall as heavy upon the nobility, as it hitherto had on the plebeians. After this declaration the Speaker retired, accompanied by the clergy and commons, and these took a sudden resolution to render the king absolute; and, after some previous communication with the court, they repaired in a body to an audience, at which they stated, that, as the present constitution did not answer the end of government, they were resolved to put the administration totally into his hands. On their persisting in their request the king accepted their offer, and took such measures as obliged the nobles to surrender all their rights and privileges to him; and the crown was made hereditary in his issue. Thus eased of domestick troubles, and disengaged from all foreign wars, Frederick gave his whole attention to promoting the industry and commerce, and gaining the affection of his subjects, and superintending the education of his son; who, in the tour which his father sent him to take, became enamoured with a princess of Hesse, whom he married. Frederick himself, from the time at which he was invested with absolute power, proved a father to his people, and a friend to mankind: neither did he forfeit that character, ere he was

A. D. 1670. removed from this sublunary theatre. When this event took place, his eldest son ascended the throne, by the name of Christian the fifth. This monarch having put an end to the disputes which had long existed between the Danish monarchs and the dukes of Holstein Gottorp, declared war against Sweden, on account of the duchy of Bremen. After this war had continued four years, with great exertions both of courage and conduct in Christian, he was, by the defection of his allies, forced to rest content without having any of

A. D. 1679. the purposes for which he undertook it effected. But ere this treaty was concluded, Christian attempted to reduce the city of Hamburgh: but so powerfull was the interference in its preservation, that he was content to obtain from the citizens a sum of money. After peace was established, the marriage of the princess Eleonora of Denmark to the king of Sweden was celebrated: negociations of no great consequence, and some menacing appearances, occupied the next three years. At length Christian commenced hostilities against Hamburgh; but, after some fruitless attempts on that city, peace

was restored, or rather a truce was concluded, to last until the final year of the century, without impeachment of the claims of the king. This monarch still claiming the sovereignty of the duchy of Holstein, the duke, to put an end to their differences, consented to accept the mediation of the emperour and the elector of Brandenburgh; who pronounced in favour of Christian. But the duke's hopes reviving on the appearance of a war between Sweden and Denmark, the mediation of England and Brandenburgh was required, and under that the duke was restored to all his dominions and sovereignties, and a perpetual union and friendship was established between the courts of Denmark and Holstein. Some altercation with the court of France having taken place, Christian concluded a defensive treaty with that of Sweden; and both courts agreeing to carry on an unlimited trade, the Dutch took umbrage at that pursued with France, attacked some Danish merchant-men, and in return had some of their ships seized; when a negociation was set on foot, and an accommodation brought about between the two powers. It was now the policy of Christian to preserve the blessings of peace, which he did until his death, which took place in the twenty-ninth year of his reign. His son and successor, Frederick the fourth, by overrunning the duchy of Holstein, and undertaking the siege of Tonningen, gave occasion to a long war with Sweden: the king of which besieged Copenhagen, and, as guarantees of the last peace, the English and Dutch sent fleets into the Baltick; by which measures Frederick was obliged to sign a treaty, by which the full right of sovereignty, with all its prerogatives, was once more given to the duke of Holstein: and with this event closed the transactions of the seventeenth century in Denmark.

Transactions in Germany during the 17th century.

At the close of the sixteenth century the Turks and Germans were engaged in mutual slaughters. Of these both parties growing weary, a treaty was concluded, first with the Hungarians, by which the Lutherans and Calvinists were allowed the free exercise of their religion in that country; and afterwards one for a cessation of arms with the Turks for the space of twenty years. The emperour Rodolphus being, from his infirmities, unable to visit the Hungarians, they invited the archduke Matthias as their governour; and as the

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emperour had no issue, they elected him, as his next heir, for their king; stipulating for liberty to profess Protestantism, which most of them had embraced. On the report of this election, and the conditions of it, the Bohemians invited Matthias into their country; and he, without loss of time, assembled his troops, and on his march endeavoured to make himself master of Austria also. The electors and princes of the empire, dreading the consequences of hostilities between Matthias and the emperour, who was much irritated at his conduct, interposed and effected an accommodation, under which the emperour ceded to him Hungary and Austria, and promised, if he himself died without male issue, to secure to him the succession to Bohemia. The emperour, instead of disbanding his troops, permitting them to ravage the country, the Protestants of Bohemia and Austria united in forcing him to redress their grievances; when they

A. D. 1608. obtained liberty of conscience, and permission to build churches and found schools in whatever place they pleased. These concessions encouraged the other Protestants of the empire to request the same; and, being refused, a new alliance, named the Union, was formed among several princes of that communion, and the greatest part of the imperial towns. To obviate the influence of which, an association, called the Catholick League, was also instituted under the pretence of preserving the Catholick, Apostolick, and Roman religion. The tranquillity of the empire was now further interrupted by a long contention concerning the succession to the duchies of Juliers and Cleves; in which the French monarch took part, and which was at length settled by a treaty, under which those estates were to be governed by the elector and princes of Saxony, conjointly with the elector of Brandenburgh, and the prince of Neuburg. Some other disagreements took place between the Papists and the Protestants, and such were the vexations which the Bohemians experienced, that they called in to their relief king Matthias; who brought with him so imposing a force, that the emperour readily came to an accommodation, and was induced by Matthias to resign to him the kingdom of Bohemia. The emperour was desirous of having a king of the Romans, and convened a diet for that purpose; but ere any thing could be finally concluded on, his life, rendered

miserable by melancholy and distrust, said to have been infused into him by the insinuations of Tycho Brahe, was closed in consequence of an inflammation in his legs. To succeed Rodolphus, Matthias was elected king of the Romans, and then saluted emperour: his residence he fixed at Vienna. The new emperour received an embassador from Persia to excite him to enter into a war with the Turks, and another more gratefull from Russia requesting him to recommend them a sovereign. In the midst of these transactions, the princess Elizabeth of England was married to the elector palatine. Matthias, imitating his predecessors, exerted himself in endeavouring to unite the Protestants with the papal church, but without success. Expecting to be attacked by the Turks, he convened a diet at Ratisbon, the time of which was taken up in contentions between the Protestants and the Papists, while the arms of the Turks were making great progress in Transylvania. Neither could Matthias by his representations prevail on the Protestant deputies in the diet to proceed to give him a supply, until their complaints were attended to. The dispute concerning Juliers and Cleves raged anew, and the Dutch taking part with the elector of Brandenburgh, and the governour of the Spanish Netherlands with the prince of Neuburg, both sides appealed to arms. In the mean time the progress of the Turks in Transylvania, and the hatred he experienced from his own subjects, impelled Bathori, the prince of that country, to request one of his own soldiers to slay him; on which the basha commanding the Turkish army declared Bethleem Gabor, vaivode of that province, and in forty days peace was concluded with the Turks, and the sovereign appointed by them was generally acknowledged. But the situation of the Ottoman affairs in other places, very opportunely for the emperour, determined the grand seignior to make peace with Germany, and the former treaty was accordingly renewed for twenty years. Matthias having long kept measures with the Protestants now pulled off the mask, and resolved to secure the crown of Bohemia to his cozen Ferdinand, archduke of Gratz; and, on his recommendation, Ferdinand was elected, and solemnly crowned king of Bohemia. But he did not, according to his promise, maintain the privileges of his subjects;

A. D. 1611.

A. D. 1613.

who, finding their complaints treated with superciliousness, convoked the states of the kingdom, whose deputies to the council receiving similar treatment, were so irritated by it, that they rushed on those who were appointed to judge of their complaints, and threw three of them out of window, and then, expecting no mercy from the emperour, excited the populace to revolt; neither did the greater part of the Papists fail to join them: the united body elected thirty directors, whom they invested with sovereign authority. Matthias endeavoured to reclaim the Bohemians by letters and edicts, to which they paid very little regard: at the same time Silesia abounded with those who complained of oppression similar to that which had excited troubles in Bohemia, and the states of that province actually entered into an alliance with the Bohemians. Ferdinand imagined that the rebels of Bohemia and Silesia ought to be immediately reduced by force of arms: but his influence did not yet predominate in the councils of the emperour, though he had lately permitted him to ascend the throne of Hungary. The count de la Tour, who commanded the malcontents of Bohemia, took advantage of this conjuncture to make every disposition for a vigorous resistance against any attack. By the assistance they obtained from Silesia and other places, the army of the Bohemians soon amounted to thirty thousand, mostly veterans, and commanded by experienced officers: these troops proved too powerfull for those in the imperial service. But while hostilities were proceeding in

A. D. 1618. their favour, the emperour was cut off by death. Immediately after his decease, Ferdinand, his heir in his hereditary dominions, resolved, if he could, to succeed him in the imperial throne, and endeavoured to reconcile the Bohemians to him; but in this attempt succeeded so little, that the war continued with great animosity on both sides. The revolt thus on foot spread into Moravia, Lusatia, and Upper Austria, and impeded the election of a king of the Romans; while the Bohemians, who considered their crown as elective, offered it to the elector palatine: yet, notwithstanding their reclamations, Ferdinand was at length chosen king of the Romans, and did succeed to the empire. Irritated at this, the states of Bohemia resolved never to acknowledge him for their sovereign, and they chose Frederick

the fifth, elector palatine, for their king; who accepted the crown, and repaired to Prague. Bethleem Gabor, vaivode of Transylvania, not acknowledging Frederick, attacked Hungary, and quickly reduced that kingdom. During these transactions, the Protestant electors, princes, and states of the empire met at Nuremberg, and thither came the king of Bohemia in person. Between this prince and the emperour all Germany was now divided: the Catholick league supported the latter, and he also strengthened himself by foreign alliances; while the elector palatine derived assistance from some princes, and from Hungary, as well as a little, but that little no more than two thousand four hundred men under the command of Horace Vere, with whom the earls of Essex and Oxford served as captains, from his father-in-law, James, king of England. While the war was raging, the king of France offered his good offices for the re-establishment of peace in Germany, which gave rise to some measures to restrain the flames of war from spreading. The emperour's admonition to the elector palatine to abstain from all acts of hostility was answered by that prince; but the progress of his enemies was much against the latter, though Bethleem Gabor, who sided with him, was by the states of Hungary declared their king. Still the Bohemians themselves were much discontented at not receiving the aid which they had expected from England. The elector found himself much pressed, and was at last compelled to come to an engagement with the imperial army, commanded by the duke of Bavaria, under the walls of Prague, in which his troops were completely discomfited; and from which he was obliged to flee with his wife, children, and most valuable effects, for Silesia. But the emperour proceeding to put him under the ban of the empire, and by an edict proscribing all who assisted him, the states of Silesia made their peace with Ferdinand. On quitting that country, Frederick took refuge with the king of Denmark, who undertook the office of a mediator between him and the emperour: but the proposals of the latter were too harsh to be accepted. The war consequently continued, but to the advantage of the emperour; who, by his advantageous offers, prevailed on Bethleem Gabor to resign the title of king of Hungary, and restore the crown and other royal ornaments: during the negociations for which, the emperour

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himself was married to the sister of the duke of Mantua. Frederick, finding his affairs proceed from bad to worse, was at length, by the advice of his very silly and mean father-in-law, induced to deprive himself of his two enterprising officers, Mansfeld and the duke of Brunswick, and retire to Sedan, the residence of his uncle the duke of Bouillon. The whole of his dominions were now quickly overrun by the imperial forces; and from Bohemia and all the hereditary dominions of the House of Austria the Protestants were expelled. The great power and extensive projects of the emperour occasioned no small alarm among the princes of the empire, and especially among the Protestants. Cardinal Richlieu being applied to when affairs were in this situation, offered the mediation of France for a peace, or at least a suspension of arms. But this took no effect; and the emperour, without consulting the states of Bohemia, ordered, that his son Ferdinand, already king of Hungary, should be crowned also monarch of the former country: and on assembling a diet at Mulhausen, it appeared plainly from the language of the imperial envoy there, that it was the intention of Ferdinand to give law to all Germany. The hard conditions of peace, however, which he proposed to the king of Denmark were refused, and he thought proper so to reduce his demands that a peace was concluded with that sovereign. But the tranquillity thus given to the empire was but of short duration; as, after two years, the emperour, by an edict, commanded the Protestants to restore immediately the ecclesiastical benefices in their possession; which command being opposed by the elector of Saxony and other princes, Ferdinand ordered his own troops and those of the Catholick league to subdue all those who should fail in their obedience. While some of the Protestant princes submitted to the decree, on others it was enforced by the imperial general Walstein, duke of Friedland, at the head of an army, with such licentious rigour, that those of the Confession of Augsburg, with the elector of Saxony, while they solicited the emperour to revoke his edict, entered into alliance with Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. While this was secretly negociating, the emperour convoked a diet at Ratisbon, in which he met with much opposition, not only from the Protestants, but from the Papists, who declared

A. D. 1628.

that their deliberations could not be free while he had an army of an hundred and fifty thousand men in Germany. They urged him, too, to soothe the Protestants, by granting them the ecclesiastical benefices for forty years; and though they prevailed not on this point, Ferdinand reduced his army to forty thousand veterans, and dismissed from his service the very obnoxious Walstein. During this diet the emperour received from the king of Sweden a manifesto, containing his reasons for declaring war against him. The operations which followed this declaration have been already detailed in the history of the Swedish monarch. The Protestant princes, of whose favourable dispositions Gustavus was well assured, had determined, in an assembly holden at Leipsick, to levy an army of forty thousand men. But affairs in Italy being accommodated between the emperour and the king of France, the Austrian troops which returned from thence compelled the Protestants of Suabia and Franconia to renounce the confederation formed at Leipsick, and pay large contributions to Ferdinand. The death of Gustavus, with the occasion of it, has been already mentioned, as well as the courage and success with which his generals continued the war in Germany. The news of the death of the Swedish conquerour hastened that of the elector palatine, who had depended on him for the recovery of his dominions. In the continuance of the war few provinces of the empire escaped pillage and devastation: but successfull as were the arms of Sweden, their allies were far from continuing firm; and the duke of Fridland, who, from disgust at the usage which he had received from Ferdinand, and more from the dictates of his own ambition, was about to desert the emperour and join them, was prevented from executing his purpose by assassination. The elector of Saxony turned his thoughts to a separate peace; and the Swedish chancellor, Oxenstiern, was compelled to enter into a compact to ensure the assistance of France; which power seized an opportunity, imprudently afforded her by Spain, to declare war against that crown. On the other hand, after much altercation, the emperour and the elector of Saxony concluded a treaty, of which the most interesting articles were, that the exercise of the Protestant and Roman religion should be allowed throughout the empire, except

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Bohemia and the provinces subject to the House of Austria; that the duke of Bavaria, to whom the emperour had assumed the right of giving the palatinate, should retain it, on condition of paying the jointure of Frederick's widow, and a proper subsistence for his son, when returned to his allegiance; and that the states subscribing the present treaty should enjoy a general amnesty: and at this, which was called the peace of Prague, Ferdinand did, by a particular
A. D. 1635. deed, cede to the duke of Saxony the sovereignty of Upper and Lower Lusatia. The destruction of the Swedish power in Germany, which this treaty tended to effectuate, was prevented by the exertions of Lewis the thirteenth, and ere the war, which was long, closed,
A. D. 1637. the emperour Ferdinand the second died at Vienna, having previously prevailed to have his son Ferdinand, king of Hungary, elected king of the Romans. The beginning of the new reign was marked by considerable success on the side of Bernard, duke of Weimar, now acting with and for the French, as well as on the part of the Swedish general Bannier in Pomerania. But the prince palatine was defeated by the imperialists, and his brother Rupert taken prisoner; and the next year the duke of Weimar was cut off by sickness; and his army entered, under certain conditions, into the service of France. The widow of William, landgrave of Hesse Cassel, also threw herself under the protection of the French monarch: but the success of the Swedes under Bannier distressed the emperour more than all these circumstances; and these troublesome guests continued to disturb and ravage the empire, while the adherence of the German diet to the emperour prevented that accommodation which might have restored peace to the ravaged country; and narrowly did the members of this diet, assembled at Ratisbon, escape falling into the hands of the Swedes and the French. But the death of the excellent Swedish general Bannier occurring soon after this, revived the spirits of the emperour, and made him think only of destroying the confederates: yet in general Torstenson, a very able successor being found for Bannier, the enemies of Ferdinand yet continued formidable. Neither could the request, even of the diet of Ratisbon, avail to induce the Swiss to recall their troops from the service of France. The conferences which had been continued a long time at Ham-

burgh began to assume the appearance of really ending in a treaty, but this appearance was removed by the death of Lewis the thirteenth: neither did the diet that was soon after assembled at Francfort do any thing to promote the hope of peace. While the House of Austria was suffering on the one side from the French and the Swedes, Ragotski, vaivode of Transylvania, with the consent of the grand signor, to whom he was tributary, concluded a treaty of alliance with France and Sweden, and attacked the dominions of Ferdinand, king of Hungary. Torstenson, in the mean time, penetrated into Moravia, and so nearly menaced Vienna itself, that the emperour retired to Ratisbon. Much fighting took place on the side of Bavaria, but the French made no permanent conquests; yet the marshall Turenne replaced the elector of Triers, who had been released after a captivity of ten years, in his capital. While on the one side the elector of Saxony concluded a six months truce with the Swedish general, the emperour on the other made peace with Ragotski, though not much to his own advantage. While conferences were carrying on for the conclusion of a peace, Torstenson ravaged Austria to the very gates of Vienna; but from the increase of the gout, with which he was afflicted, he was compelled to retire from the command, in which he was succeeded by general Wrangel. This general having retreated towards the Weser, was afterwards joined by marshall Turenne: while the emperour had his eldest son Ferdinand crowned king of Bohemia at Prague, and thence repairing to Hungary re-established the Protestants of that country in their religious privileges, and had the archduke crowned there too. But while the emperour was thus engaged, the elector of Bavaria concluded a separate peace with France, and negociated a neutrality for the archbishops of Cologne and Mentz, and the landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt. Yet while the Swedes were apparently prospering, the elector of Bavaria was prevailed on, and partly by his holiness's nuncio, to renounce the treaty which he had made with the French, and rejoin Ferdinand. Still, after a little time, the French and Swedes so pressed the imperialists, and the prince palatine, with a reinforcement from Sweden, made so vigourous an attack on Old Prague, that the emperour was in danger of losing both that city

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and all Bohemia, unless he made peace; which, after most protracted conferences, first at Osnaburgh, then at Munster, was at length done, by what is known by the appellation of the treaty of Westphalia; and by which the lower palatinate was restored to Charles Lewis, count palatine of the Rhine; and it was agreed that for him should be established an eighth electorate. Germany in general now enjoyed the fruits of peace; and the emperour prevailed on the electors to choose his eldest son, Ferdinand Francis, king of the Romans. The pope's nuncio having protested against part of the treaty of Westphalia, in a diet now holden at Ratisbon, a decree was passed, enjoining all members of the Germanick body to observe it as a fundamental law of the empire. After the breaking up of this diet, the emperour, on his return to Vienna, lost the king of the Romans by the small pox. Ferdinand having, with the consent of the states of Hungary, placed his son Leopold on the throne of that kingdom, and amused the Protestants of it with promises, returned to Germany, and opened a diet, in which seven years were spent in debates between the Protestants and the Papists, without compromising their contests. In these, however, Ferdinand seemed to take but little interest; but he joined in a league with the Danes and Poles against Sweden, the effect of which he did not live to see, dying at Vienna in the twentieth year of his reign. Leopold, already king of Bohemia and Hungary, being only seventeen years of age, governed his dominions under the tuition of his uncle, the archduke Leopold, by whose directions he sent an army into Poland, of the operations of which the king of Sweden complained, as infractions of the peace of Westphalia. After a year consumed in intrigue, the young Leopold was chosen emperour, and with Brandenburgh pursued hostilities against Sweden, which gave rise to much discussion in the diet; but, on the decease of the Swedish monarch, a peace was concluded with that kingdom. The menacing attitude of the Turks having induced the emperour to send a number of German troops into Hungary, who displaced the native garrisons, and took possession of the fortresses; this measure excited much suspicion and discontent in that country, and the Germans behaving in an oppressive manner, the Hungarian peasants, headed by some lords,

A. D. 1649.

A. D. 1657.

proceeded to open force. Some negociations, set on foot with the Turks, not succeeding, that war continued; but with such success on the part of Leopold, that in two years the grand vizir offered to treat of peace, which was accordingly very rapidly made. The Hungarians being greatly offended at the precipitation with which this treaty was concluded, threatened a revolt, nor were they satisfied until all foreign troops were removed from their country, and the guard of its frontier committed to themselves alone. But Leopold still departing from his promises, and infringing their privileges, they actually did revolt; and, had he not been apprized of his danger, would have seized the emperour's person. Leopold now married Margaret Theresa, infanta of Spain. The peace of the empire was next disturbed by hostilities taking place between the elector of Mentz and the count palatine, but which were soon terminated by a treaty, securing to the last the matter in dispute. The grievances of the Hungarians not being yet redressed, they were so irritated, as even to apply to the Turk for assistance, and embark in open revolt; but all the measures of the malcontents were broken, and they were obliged to submit absolutely to the emperour. The rapidity of Lewis the fourteenth's conquests from the Dutch induced the emperour and several princes of the empire to declare for Holland; and the publication of the treaty of the former with the States General was followed by a manifesto, in which he declared, that he acted as a guarantee of the peace of Westphalia in proposing to hinder the French from entering the empire, and to stop their progress, which was become alarming to all Europe. The elector of Brandenburgh, and the imperial general, having but an unsuccessfull campaign, and the Dutch murmuring against the former, he was persuaded to make peace with France, whose king, not long after, on some success of the allies evacuated the Dutch provinces: but he carried the war into the empire, which gave occasion to a new alliance between Leopold, the Dutch, the Spaniards, and several princes of the empire, among whom was the elector of Brandenburgh. With various success was the war now pursued, but principally to the disadvantage of the imperialists, for the space of six years, when it was closed by the peace of Nimeguen, as has been

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already stated. In the mean time, however, the suppression of the office of palatine of Hungary, and the appointment of a viceroy, increased the discontents in that kingdom; and the emperour not manifesting the conciliatory disposition which even prudence dictated, the malcontents took up arms, and Abassi, vaivode of Transylvania, assisted them with the greatest part of his forces, commanded by Stephen, the son of a lord of Upper Hungary, count Emerick Tekeli, to whom the malcontents also entrusted the command of their armies; and who, after having had great success, took the title of protector of the kingdom; and with this commander the emperour at length agreed to a truce, at the time the peace of Nimeguen was
A. D. 1679. under negociation, in which he was compelled to consent to the demands of France. The north of Germany was still disturbed by hostilities between the elector of Brandenburgh and the king of Denmark on the one hand, and the Swedes on the other; but which
A. D. 1680. terminated, by the powerfull interposition of the French monarch, in favour of the latter. The insolent and shameless aggressions of Lewis the fourteenth compelled the emperour again to prepare for war, in which he was seconded by several princes of the empire; but the selfish opposition of the elector of Brandenburgh and his allies, the king of Denmark and bishop of Munster, and the fear of an invasion by the Turks, induced the diet at Ratisbon to propose a truce to France, to which that power consented, but without specification of either articles or time. While these things were passing in Germany, Tekeli, supported by the Turks, made a great progress in Hungary, and was, by the grand vizir, declared king of the Upper Hungary. Of the operations of the Turks, and the defence of the imperialists in this war, an account has been already given; here, therefore, little else need be remarked, than that the emperour, on hearing of the Mahometan preparations, entered into a league, offensive and defensive, with John Sobieski, king of Poland, and having received the promise of a number of auxiliary forces from the princes of the empire, placed prince Charles of Lorraine at the head of his army. The success of his arms against the Turks and in Hungary induced Leopold to prevent the diet at Ratisbon from agreeing on the articles and duration of the treaty with France, and led him to transfer the

negociations to the Hague. Offended at this, and at the inclination he manifested to regulate the affairs of the Germanic body without their consent, the electoral college informed him, that they accepted the French proposals, and made the same known to England and Holland, forbidding their ministers at the Hague to enter into any negociation. But the arms of Lewis obliged the emperour and the States General to agree to the truce. The greater part of the Hungarian lords, terrified at the success of the duke of Lorraine, again swore fidelity to the emperour, and the duke continued his conquests until stopped by illness. The next year the elector palatine dying without issue, the duke of Neuburg, after some opposition on the part of the duchess of Orleans, the elector's sister, was put in possession of the electorate. The success of the duke of Lorraine A. D. 1685. was such as to bring the Hungarian malcontents to submission by numbers; while this desertion causing Tekeli to be suspected by the Turks, they seized and put him in irons; a step which induced several cities and their territories to return to obedience to the emperour. After the duke of Lorraine had taken Buda, and continued successfull in his operations until the close of the campaign, some communications took place between the emperour and the sultan on the subject of peace: for the former wished to conclude one, that he might be at liberty to attempt the recovery of Alsace from Lewis; for the promotion of which purpose he concluded at Augsburg a league with several states of the empire. While the French monarch by fortifying Huninguen, and building a bridge over the Rhine, and a fort for its defence, gave offence to all Germany. The negociations with the Ottomans coming to nothing, after another successfull campaign the duke of Lorraine, by agreement, took up his winter quarters in Transylvania; from which the unprincipled Leopold took occasion to get possession of the strong places of the principality. Of the subjection of Hungary he took advantage to have the succession of that crown settled on the male descendants of the House of Austria in Germany, and his son the archduke Joseph, only nine years of age, was crowned king; and even the countess Tekeli was prevailed on to submit to the emperour; which submission completed the reduction of Hungary.

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This was followed by additional success against the Turks, in which was included the taking of Belgrade: after which the emperour's attention was diverted from this side of his dominions, by the king of France commencing, in breach of the truce, hostilities on the Rhine. An alliance being rapidly concluded with several princes of the empire, with the king of England and the States General, the diet of Ratisbon formally declared war against France. The first campaign gave to the allies the fortresses of Mentz and Bonn; while against the imperialists the Turks were successfull. Neither, when the season of action ceased, was the emperour less happy in prevailing to have his son Joseph elected king of the Romans. The equality of the armies in Germany caused the next campaign to pass with no material action; and on the side of Turkey the Ottomans recovered Belgrade, and one or two other fortresses. Nor did the next year produce more than one important action, which was in favour of the Germans; neither was the following marked by any thing but the capture of Great Waradin by the prince of Baden: while on the Rhine the imperialists suffered a defeat from the

A. D. 1692. French troops. In the course of this year the Protestant interest in Germany was strengthened by the creation of a ninth electorate in

A. D. 1694. favour of the duke of Hanover. Two years after this, Leopold granted to the elector of Brandenburgh the title of king of Prussia. The war, both on the Rhine and on the other frontier, continued without any material advantage to either party, though both suffered

A. D. 1697. severely from its continuance; and of the peace of Ryswick, by which it was at length closed, an account has been already given. Relieved from war on the side of France, the emperour entrusted the command of his troops to prince Eugene; who gave the Turks a most important defeat in his first campaign, and his second passing without any thing material, a third was prevented by the conclusion of a treaty, by which Transylvania was ceded to the emperour, and a truce established between him and the sultan for twenty-five years. Neither did any thing else occur in Germany itself worthy of notice ere the close of the seventeenth century.

History of the United Provinces during the 17th century.

So much of the history of the United Provinces since their separation from the Spanish monarchy has necessarily been given in

the history of England, and of the other countries which lie near them, that, if repetition be avoided, little remains to be said of their publick transactions. The country which formed the republick of Holland was bordered on the south by Flanders, Brabant, Flemish Guelderland, and the duchy of Cleves; on the east the frontiers extended to the territory of Embden and the bishoprick of Munster; while some portion of the northern borders and the whole western coast are washed by the German ocean. The whole country is full of marshes, and divided by rivers, canals, and lakes: but hence the Dutch derive the greatest commercial advantages. The principal rivers are the Rhine, the Maese, and the Schelde. It was in the year sixteen hundred and nine that the people of the United Provinces of Guelderland, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Overyssel, Groningen, and Friesland, obtained from the king of Spain an acknowledgement of their forming a free state, and a renunciation of all claim to sovereignty over them, with a truce for twelve years. The government of this new state was founded upon the league formed at Utrecht to oppose the tyranny of Philip the second. Each province is a separate republick, and every city in it possesses certain sovereign privileges; the supreme authority in each city is vested in the senate, the members of which are for life, and the vacancies in them filled up by the senate itself. By a majority of voices in this, too, are elected the burgomasters, who preside in it by turns: they are the representatives of the government, dispose of all the inferior offices, and issue money for the expenses of the city from the common treasury; and though great trust and authority are annexed to this office, the salary amounts to scarcely sixty pounds a year; nor do the burgomasters assume more state than the other citizens. The provincial states are composed of deputies chosen by the senate. Though in the states the nobility possess but one vote, yet their influence is very considerable; having in their hands the best employments, civil and military, the direction of the ecclesiastical revenue, and the right of sending deputies to the States General. Though, too, the pensioner of Holland be but the servant of the province, yet from the perpetual duration of his employment, and other particulars attending it, he derives very great consequence in

the republick. The provinces send to the States General two or more members at pleasure, but the resolutions are formed by the votes of the provinces, not by the voices of the deputies; and every province presides in turn by its best qualified deputy. The tediousness of the deliberations in this compounded state, occasioned the creation of an officer to expedite measures and obviate exigences, denominated a stadtholder; and to this office William, prince of Orange, was first raised during the war of the revolution, and with it he received the following rights and privileges: he was captain general by sea and land; he disposed of all commissions in the army and navy; directed the operations of war; led the troops in battle; had a seat, but not a voice in the States General; and was president of the council of state. But to prevent the extension of his power, a council was given him, composed of deputies from the States General and the council of state, who attended him in the field, and concerted with him all the operations of the campaign. After the truce above mentioned was concluded with Spain, the states rewarded the services of prince Maurice of Nassau with a pension of twenty-five thousand florins, besides an appointment of sixty thousand franks as governour general; pensions were likewise bestowed on the other princes of the House of Nassau. The peace which the United Provinces had gained was soon interrupted by those religious disputes, to which the doctrines of Arminius,* most censurable as to some points, gave birth. But the states did not defer their efforts to extend their commerce, through a treaty with the emperour of Morocco. In the mean time the religious disputes became more violent; and, as is not uncommonly the case, at length took a political turn, and

* As the doctrine of Arminius concerning the Divine decrees was much more consonant with the sacred writings than that of Calvin on the same subject, so was it on other points equally repugnant to them. The true believer holds nothing inconsistent with the Divine perfection; but as the doctrine, that the Deity has decreed the final lot of men without regard to their conduct, impeaches His moral perfection, so doubts of His perfect prescience imply a denial of his natural. Of both these errours the Church of England has steered clear: her assertion of the doctrine of predestination preserves her from the last; and her declaration that that predestination is founded on the Divine foreknowledge, secures her from the first.

the appellations of Arminians and Gomarists gave way to those of Remonstrants and Contra-Remonstrants; the last of which were countenanced by the House of Orange. After much intrigue, in which prince Maurice made use of the power his offices gave him against the opposite party, a synod was assembled at Dort, which the Arminians refusing to attend, the prince imprisoned some of the leaders of that party, among whom was the pensioner Barneveldt, and the celebrated Grotius; and the former was condemned to death by a most iniquitous sentence, which was executed, though that faithfull servant of his country was then seventy-two years of age. The latter continued several years in confinement, from which he at length escaped by a stratagem of his wife: this tyrannical conduct deprived Maurice of all his popularity, and rendered him justly detested. As the commerce of the United Provinces greatly increased during the truce, they were, at the end of it, in a state to treat with contempt the demands of the court of Spain; when the war being renewed, continued for a period of twenty-seven years, during which prince Maurice was, on his decease, succeeded in his A. D. 1625. titles by his brother prince Henry, who was elected governour of Holland, Zealand, Guelderland, Utrecht, and Overyssel. The Dutch fleets prospered in the East and West, their possessions in both hemispheres were increased; and though they were not free from religious disputes at home, great was the progress of their power, and an alliance with France enabled them with still greater ease to cope with their ancient foe. The prudence, valour, and great moderation of prince Henry induced the states to render the stadtholdership hereditary in his family, and to appoint his son, though only in the fifth year of his age, general of the cavalry. The same prince was afterwards married to the princess Mary, daughter of Charles the first of England, and in the very first action in which he commanded in chief he gained great reputation. Henry, prince of Orange, dying in the year sixteen hundred and forty-seven, was succeeded by his son, prince William, in all his employments; and the next year was concluded the treaty of Munster, by which the king of Spain again renounced all right and sovereignty over the United Provinces, the inhabitants of which were declared free and

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independent. This relief from foreign war was soon followed by civil dissensions between the states of Holland and the prince of Orange, supported by the States General; and scarcely had these ceased, when that prince died of the small pox. Eight days after the death of William, his widow was delivered of a son, to whom the states of Holland denied any of the honours enjoyed by his father, annexing them all to their own sovereignty: an example which was followed by those of Zealand. The child was baptized by the name of William, and his mother, and the dowager of Henry, prince of Orange, the elector of Brandenburgh, and the count of Landsberg were appointed his guardians. During this minority a war with the commonwealth of England took place, during the existence of which M. De Wit was advanced to the office of pensionary of Holland. But his efforts to bring about a peace were fruitless, and the war continued; but with such ill success on the part of Holland, where there had been repeated tumults during the course of it, that at length a treaty was submitted to, in which the Dutch contracted to exclude the prince of Orange from the stadtholdership, and the other high offices holden by his ancestors. This treaty, which was the separate work of the province of Holland, produced great dissensions and debates, and much reflection, but it should seem not entirely merited, on the pensionary De Wit. Some years afterwards, however, when monarchy was restored in Britain, the act of exclusion was repealed. In a war with Portugal the Dutch gained great advantages: but at home much dispute arose concerning the tutelage of the prince of Orange; and it became a subject of contention, particularly between the provinces of Holland and Zealand. The pensionary De Wit after this connected himself strongly with the court of France, and by his private transactions with the French embassador incensed the king of England, which promoted the rupture between the two nations which at length took place, and has already been noticed in a former part of this Work, yet where perhaps the treacherous and provoking conduct of the

A. D. 1665.

Dutch has not been sufficiently stigmatized. The ill success of their fleet at the commencement of this war raised much clamour in Holland; the Orange party demanded an immediate peace, and the

elevation of the prince of Orange to the stadtholdership. But De Wit supported his own opinions with unshaken resolution; left his proper office for some time to go aboard the fleet, and when he returned to Holland infused fresh life and vigour into the state. The bishop of Munster having, through the influence of Charles the second, attacked the Dutch, Lewis the fourteenth assisted them against him, and afterwards declared war against England; but never heartily co-operated with his allies, though he endeavoured to prevent their being entirely overwhelmed by the force of their enemies: at length, on Charles's becoming tired of the war, the peace of Breda was concluded. Of the triple alliance, of which the Dutch formed one party, an account has already been given, as well as of the connection which Charles of England formed with Lewis the fourteenth, which led to another war with that country. This war the Orange party endeavoured to avoid, recommending the conciliation of the British monarch, by a compliance with his demands; and, on the other hand, the states, under the influence of De Wit, made the most abject submissions to the French king. But this conduct of the two parties was pursued more with an intention to destroy each other than to please either of the monarchs. On France having declared war, the populace demanded, that the prince of Orange, who had just attained to manhood, should be placed at the head of the army, reduced by the mismanagement of De Wit to an inefficient force; and to this demand the pensionary was obliged to yield. And this was a measure which manifestly contributed greatly to the preservation of the country: since, when from the progress of the French arms all were in consternation, and the allied monarchs received with insolence the proposals for peace, the prince refused all the offers those monarchs made to him, and by declaring that he would defend the liberties of his country or perish in the last dyke, he infused vigour into his party: while the pensioner De Wit was considered as the cause of the publick calamities; and, on account of their adherence to France, he and his brother were become objects of detestation with the populace. Every voice now demanded the repeal of the edict by which the states had engaged themselves never to acknowledge the prince of

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Orange as governour general. The two brothers, John and Cornelius de Wit, continuing to oppose the repeal, from motives, it is asserted, of true patriotism, the populace at length broke through all restraint: their rage against both the brothers was inexpressible. John having been assaulted by four ruffians and left for dead in the street, resigned the office of pensioner, and his brother having been accused by an infamous barber of offering him a bribe to assassinate the prince of Orange, the judges were driven by intimidation to condemn him to the torture, confiscate his estate, and sentence him to perpetual banishment. But while his brother the pensioner was visiting him in prison, the ferocious multitude broke open the doors, dragged out both, murdered them, and treated their dead bodies with the most savage indignity. After the completion of this tragedy, the prince of Orange was promoted to the whole administration of Holland and Zealand; and there seemed to be a design to divide the government between the stadtholder and the populace. Whatever demand these made the prince immediately granted: all authority was vested in his highness; the states were scarcely named, and the constitution appeared entirely unhinged: but great was the effect of the change of measures. At an extraordinary assembly of the states, William manifested in a long address knowledge so extensive, and a judgment so solid, that the states appeared at the same time astonished and convinced, and the cool intrepidity of the young stadtholder inspired all with hope and courage; and under his conduct the republick rose from the distressed and disgracefull state into which she had sunk. She renewed several foreign alliances, and entered into one even with Spain, and then obtained peace with England. But to treat with France was not consistent with the views of the stadtholder, who considered it as the interest of both Holland and England to set bounds to the power of France. The war was continued as stated in the history of this last country, until closed by the peace of Nimeguen. The tranquillity produced by this peace was far from undisturbed; besides the renewal of war between France and Spain, and the very offensive encroachments of Lewis the fourteenth, the jealousy which this monarch entertained of the prince of Orange, as disposed to obviate

A. D. 1678.

his ambitious enterprizes, led him to employ his agent in bribing some of the leading men of Amsterdam to oppose the measures recommended by the prince; and thus he again revived the dissensions among the Dutch, and once more gained such influence in the republick as enabled him to prevent all vigorous resolutions, and limit the authority of the stadtholder. King James the second of England having favoured the Algerines in their piracies on the Dutch, the states in reprisal extended their protection to all the declared enemies of the king and government. But with regard to the French king, they endeavoured to avoid a rupture with him even by mean submission; yet they afforded refuge to the artisans which were expelled from his dominions on account of their religion, and the United Provinces now established manufactories of their own. In the mean time king James applied to the prince of Orange, his son-in-law, as his presumptive heir, for his consent to the repeal of the penal laws, and of the Test Act; but William declared that he could not sacrifice his religion to his inclination to oblige his father-in-law. Of the integrity of his plea of religion doubts have been expressed, on account of the correspondence which he undeniably maintained in England, and the great concourse of English people of distinction that appeared at his court. The military preparations now made in Holland were viewed with a suspicious eye by both France and England: but the states were so sensible of the weight it would give the republick to have the prince of Orange on the throne of Great Britain, that they pushed the preparations for placing him on it with the utmost vigour. The success which attended this measure has already been related; and, indeed, so blended are the histories of England and Holland from this time to the end of the century, that no event of material consequence in that of the latter remains now unrelated.

The History of Poland during the 17th century.

At the close of the sixteenth century Sigismund, then also king of Sweden, was on the throne of Poland: all that passed between him and Charles, who prevailed to wrest the crown of the former country from him, has been stated in the history of that. A victory being gained by the Poles over the Swedes at the siege of Riga, left Sigismund at leisure to pay attention to the affairs of Russia, where he hoped to advance his own interest. Having supported an

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impostor who claimed the Russian diadem, and many Poles being massacred in that country on his fall, under the plea of revenging the blood of his subjects thus slain, Sigismund entered Russia, and so far succeeded in his operations as to force that people to depose their reigning monarch, and raise Uladislaus, prince of Poland, to their throne. Yet, ere he had taken possession, the whole empire revolted against him; and though the Poles, after being expelled, did regain possession of the capital, through Sigismund's neglecting to relieve them they were again forced to resign it; and the new czar, Feoderowitz, profiting by the unanimity with which his subjects supported him, recovered from Sigismund all the empire which he had taken, except the duchies of Severia and Novogrod. After this conclusion of the war with Russia, Sigismund, by assisting the emperour against Bethlem Gabor, prince of Transylvania, embroiled himself with the Turks, and lost an army with its brave commander, Zolkiewiski, the crown general, which he had sent to the relief of the vaivode of Moldavia. The check which the Ottomans had received from this little host, excited the indignation of the sultan, and he resolved to entirely destroy Poland, with, too, the most sanguine hopes of success. These, however, were disappointed by the valiant resistance of a very inferior body of Poles, and the sultan was compelled to conclude a truce very honourable to his enemies, by which, through the condition that the vaivode of Moldavia should always be a Christian, they gained a barrier against the Turks. But while the Polish troops were employed in Moldavia, Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, besieged and took Riga, and extended his conquests into Courland, until Sigismund solicited a truce. The obstinacy of the Polish monarch prevented the conversion of this into a peace, and great was the subsequent success of the Swede; while by the deceitfull promises of the emperour and Spain, Sigismund was induced to refuse the terms of peace which Gustavus proposed. At length, however, discovering that no confidence was to be placed in his allies, he agreed, though reluctantly, to a six years truce; about two

A. D. 1629.

years after which he died, apparently in consequence of dejection of spirits. To succeed him his eldest son Uladislaus was elected, and became the seventh king of Poland of that name. His first

achievement was a defeat of the Russians, who had been allured, by the unsettled state of the Polish government, to attempt the recovery of some of the provinces which had been taken from them. His next victory was over the Turks, whom he compelled to pay the expenses of the war which they had begun, and to conclude a truce for several years. By renewing the truce with Sweden for twenty years, Uladislaus obtained a formal restitution of Prussia: but he lived not to see the issue of a revolt of the Cossacks, occasioned by the most tyrannical, treacherous, and enormously cruel behaviour on the part of the Poles; but died of a putrid fever, in the sixteenth year of his reign. A. D. 1648. The interregnum which, in an elective kingdom, necessarily ensued, gave the Cossacks an opportunity of attacking Poland, which, having formed a strict union with the Tartars, they immediately did; and having defeated two Polish armies, committed in the country ravages so atrocious, that whole provinces were desolated, and the frontiers towards Muscovy and Tartary converted into a wilderness. After another victory, by which the Cossacks became masters of a great booty, they returned to their own country to secure it from their allies; and thus relieved Poland from the most imminent danger of utter destruction. Though a patriotick spirit now began to appear among all ranks, the differences about the election of a sovereign impeded their exertions against the common enemy. The czar of Muscovy, and Ragotski, prince of Transylvania, were candidates for the vacant dignity; but John Casimir, a brother of the late monarch, though educated a Jesuit, had a majority of voices in the diet, and was placed on the throne. No sooner was he there seated, than he expressed his disapprobation of the measures which had excited the Cossack rebellion; and on his refusing to act against that nation, the nobility resolved to do so without his consent, but were at length obliged to him for bringing the Cossacks to agree to a peace; under which these last had all their privileges assured to them, while their chiefs engaged to defend the frontiers of the republick. The war, however, was soon renewed, from whose fault there is some difficulty in determining: in this Casimir defeated a Tartarian army thrice the number of his own; after which another treaty was concluded, which was not very likely

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to last, from the disposition of either side. That of the Cossacks was quickly manifested by their joining the Russians, who took advantage of the situation of Poland to take Smolensko, and ravage the duchy of Lithuania. And, in addition to these enemies, Charles Gustavus, the successor of Christina in the throne of Sweden, attacked Casimir's dominions; and while the unfortunate monarch fled into Silesia, he rendered himself master of Poland and all Prussia, except the city of Dantzic. The resistance made by this revived the spirit of the Poles, and they determined to attempt the rescue of their country; for which purpose they concluded both a peace and an alliance with the Tartars, and then invited Casimir to return, who was quickly placed at the head of an army. The Swedes now suffered defeat and slaughter: Warsaw was recovered; but the treachery with which its re-capture was attended, brought Charles Gustavus again thither.

A. D. 1656. A most obstinate battle was fought under its walls; the city was taken; scarcely any escaped the sword, and the town was pillaged. Ragotsky, prince of Transylvania, having seized this opportunity of joining in the attack on Poland, but refusing to follow the line marked out to him by Charles Gustavus, met with such a defeat as compelled him to retreat precipitately into his own dominions. But the open rupture which now took place between the Danish and Swedish courts, drew the latter monarch and the bulk of his army from the Polish territories. The assistance of a body of Germans increased the power of Casimir; and the elector of Brandenburgh forsaking Charles Gustavus, purchased of Poland the sovereignty of Ducal Prussia, the Swede avoided the disgrace of being deprived of that country, apparently by his death alone; on which a peace was concluded between Casimir and Charles the eleventh. By this treaty the king of Poland renounced all claim to the Swedish crown, and the Swedes restored all their conquests except Riga and a few other places. After these occurrences, while Casimir was endeavouring to dislodge the Russians from what they had seized during the invasion of the Swedes, a difference rose between him and his

A. D. 1668. nobility, which ended in his defeat, and his receiving such unworthy treatment from that turbulent body as induced him to resign the

A. D. 1669. crown of Poland, and retire to France; where he died in the fifth

year of his retreat. After a protracted and most tumultuous diet, in which much violence was practised, and some blood shed, the four foreign candidates for the crown were rejected, and a collateral descendant of the House of Jagello, of reduced circumstances and inferior abilities, was, contrary to his own inclination, placed on the throne: his name was Michael Coribut Wiesnowiski. Enraged at the disappointment which he had suffered in his son's not being elected, the czar of Muscovy excited both the Turks and Cossacks to attack Poland; and the new king, being unprepared for resistance, was compelled to purchase a disgracefull peace, by the cession of Podolia to the Cossacks, and an annual tribute of twenty-two thousand ducats to the Turk. But the Turks immediately infringed the treaty, and thus brought against themselves John Sobieski, grand marshal of Poland, with whom the Walachians and Moldavians in the Turkish army uniting their forces, the Mahometans suffered a severe defeat and very great slaughter; but Sobieski was prevented from pursuing the blow by his countrymen, whose legal time of service was expired, most disgracefully withdrawing themselves and deserting the field of triumph. Ere advice of this was received at court, Wiesnowiski died. After much danger of the dissensions in the diet terminating in a civil war, the crown was voted to John Sobieski, who had so lately distinguished himself by his victory over the Turks. One of his first acts testified true magnanimity; he provided a maintenance for the queen dowager, though she had violently opposed his election. Though by the tardiness of the Pospolite, a body of militia formed wholly of the gentry of Poland, in joining his standard, the king was prevented taking the field before winter, he made himself master of the greater part of the Ukraine, when, under the pretence of their time of service being expired, the Lithuanians and ten thousand Poles deserted him. This prevented all further effort until the next campaign, and that was opened by the Turks, ere John could assemble more than six thousand men: yet with these he gave them a complete defeat. Still they were not sufficiently humbled to desist from demanding extravagant conditions. A second wonderfull defeat, however, induced them to submit to relinquish their claim of tribute and

A. D. 1670.

A. D. 1674.

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restore all their conquests, except Kaminieck, and peace was at length concluded. For some years Poland enjoyed profound tranquillity: but at length Sobieski, with the consent of the diet, entered into a treaty offensive and defensive with the emperour. The operations which ensued have been already detailed: neither, after the close of them, does the history of Poland present, before the end of this reign, any occurrences but a fruitless expedition of Sobieski's into Moldavia, in his retreat from which he greatly signalized himself, and dissensions among his turbulent and ungratefull subjects; who were

A. D. 1696.

deprived of their very able sovereign by a fit of apoplexy. The decease of this monarch was followed by a scene of confusion scarcely to be described: contentions among the great proceeding even to open hostilities; a revolt of the army, and invasions by foreigners, who declared themselves invited to it by the nobility. Various candidates appeared for the crown; but the influence of two overwhelmed that of all the rest, and Poland became divided into the parties of the prince of Conti and the elector of Saxony. To these the crown was most shamelessly put up to sale; and at length a double election took place, and different provinces were under the government of different sovereigns. At length the elector advancing at the head of an army, took possession of Cracow. But on the prince of Conti's arrival at Dantzic, his party formed a powerfull association, and in a diet confirmed his election. In opposition the elector had had himself crowned; his council contriving modes of rectifying all the irregularities which arose from the present circumstances. At length the prince, finding the promises of support given him by the Poles themselves fail, resolved to return to France; and by so doing induced several districts, and a great number of the nobility, to acknowledge the elector for the lawfull monarch: still the remains of the opposite party continued firm in their opposition to him. To conciliate them he resolved to gain possession of Warsaw, and there hold a diet of pacification: in this city he was well received; and, after some further dissensions, the association in favour of the prince of Conti was dissolved, and Augustus unanimously acknowledged king of Poland. Augustus having taken measures to put an end to the troubles still continuing in Lithuania,

entered on an expedition against Kaminieck, and on his way concluded a treaty of alliance with Peter, czar of Muscovy. The campaign, however, produced nothing but an action with the Tartars, which ended in favour of the Poles, and such symptoms of enmity of these last to the Saxons as prevented their co-operation; while the troubles in Lithuania were renewed. The seizure of the town of Elbing by the elector of Brandenburgh, for a sum due to him from Poland, caused menaces of hostilities, rather than hostilities themselves, and the vigorous measures of Augustus quieted some new commotions in Lithuania. In the following year a treaty of peace was signed at Carlowitz between Poland and Turkey, by which the fortress of Kaminieck, the province of Podolia, and the Ukraine were restored to Poland. After this the engaging behaviour of the king gained him great popularity in the diet, in which every thing was transacted to his satisfaction, and definitive arrangements made as to the number of Saxon troops he should retain in Poland. This addition to the influence of Augustus led to the elector of Brandenburgh's consent to a treaty, under which he restored Elbing. Augustus, desirous of increasing his popularity by regaining Livonia to Poland, made a most unprovoked attack on that province; and thus, too, proceeded to execute the treaty he had made with the czar to deprive the king of Sweden of Livonia, and all the lands he held between the Gulf of Finland, the Baltick, Poland, and Muscovy. Augustus laid siege to Riga, but was induced to raise it; while the victory which Charles the twelfth had obtained over the Russians, gave him reason to expect the young conquerour in Poland. Hostilities between the two parties in Lithuania, not only still continuing, but being carried on in a manner the most barbarous, and the king's plans being in opposition to the sentiments of his subjects, nothing could be more distracted than the situation of Poland at the close of the seventeenth century.

The History of Russia resumed.

The history of Russia was last suspended in the reign of Boris Gudenow. In the beginning of this century the capital of his empire suffered under a famine, which drove the inhabitants to seek for food by means the most shocking; and which enduring for three years, occasioned the death of five hundred thousand persons in

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Moscow only. The Turk having sent an embassy with presents, Boris rejected them as coming from enemies to the Christians. A claimant of the throne of Russia appearing in one who represented himself as Demetrius, the son of John Basilowitz the second, the Poles espoused his cause, and he advanced into Russia; where Boris having made several attempts against him by treachery, he had recourse to a similar mode of hostility, and had his opponent poisoned. On his decease his son Theodore was placed on the throne, but being quickly deserted by a large part of the army, and the citizens of Moscow revolting, they imprisoned the young czar, his mother, and sister, and declared for Demetrius, who ordered the first two of those prisoners to be strangled, and took himself possession of the throne. The new czar soon became unpopular, principally through his want of attention to the Russian customs, his partiality to two Jesuits, the encouragement he gave to the Poles, and his taking a bride from that nation. The discontent which became apparent, encouraged an artfull nobleman, named Knez Theodore Basilius Zuski, to look for the throne; but the conspiracy which he formed being discovered, he became indebted for his life to the clemency of Demetrius. This kindness only incited the ungratefull wretch to further attempts; he again put himself at the head of the malcontents; by persuading the clergy that their religion was in danger from the czar's intention to establish that of Rome, he drew them to his party, and at length, having prepared all things for it, he excited an insurrection, in which Demetrius was slain, and nearly two thousand Poles; the fury of the enraged multitude which Zuski had raised venting itself in all those enormities in which the majesty of the people is so inclined to indulge itself. Zuski was chosen to fill the throne thus made vacant, but was far from enjoying it undisturbed: another Demetrius was set up, and after he was destroyed, the Poles, who were desirous of revenging the blood of their slaughtered countrymen, brought forward a third, for whom, on his being acknowledged by the widow of the czar Demetrius, almost all Russia declared. But Zuski, being assisted by the Swedes, and the Poles forsaking the fictitious Demetrius, gained some respite. Yet his subjects growing weary of his government, and concluding,

from the troubles in which he had been perpetually involved, that he was an object of Divine indignation, resolved to elect a new sovereign, and fixing upon Uladislaus, son of Sigismund, prince of Poland, they deposed Zuski, who did not long survive his fall. A. D. 1610. Demetrius his rival was, after some time, slain at a feast of the Tartars; yet a new impostor assumed his name and place; and, after gaining a wonderfull number of followers, being betrayed by some of them, died on a gibbet at Moscow. In the mean time Sigismund not only made himself master of Smolensko, or rather of its ruins, two hundred thousand of its inhabitants having perished in the siege, but sent so many Poles to Moscow, that they tyrannized over that metropolis, until they stimulated its inhabitants to an insurrection, and then perpetrated a most shocking slaughter of them, and after plundering the city evacuated it, leaving a garrison in the castle, which was soon besieged by the Russians; by whom they were, on their capitulation, most of them faithlessly massacred: by which Sigismund lost all footing in Russia. His son's election, too, was set aside, on account of his not appearing; and the boyars and senators proceeded to elect the son of the archbishop of Rostow, only seventeen years of age, and named Michael Theodorowitz Romanow, or Philaret; whose election being by some management confirmed, he was proclaimed with general joy. The young monarch proved of an engaging temper, and marked the earliest days of his reign by filial piety, by making his father patriarch of all Russia. At the time of his elevation Gustavus Adolphus had, as was stated in the history of Sweden, fixed his thoughts on the throne of Russia. Against the Swedish troops which had entered that country, the czar sent an army: but, after some operations, chiefly to the disadvantage of the Russians, a peace was concluded. While A. D. 1617. Michael's attention was employed in the internal regulation of his empire, prince Uladislaus of Sweden penetrated with a numerous army to the very gates of Moscow, while his Cossacks ravaged all the adjacent country: but finding that the Russians were firmly attached to their sovereign, he consented to a truce, on the ground of *uti possidetis*. Michael, now at peace, married Eudocia, the A. D. 1616. daughter of a poor but virtuous Russian gentleman, who, after

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bringing him four daughters, produced also a son, who was named Alexis. The Poles having violated the truce existing between the two nations, Michael declared war against them; but succeeded so little, that he was next year persuaded to consent to a peace, on condition that Uladislaus should lay aside the title of czar, but

A. D. 1634. Michael yield for ever to his son the provinces of Smolensko and Czernichow, with their dependencies. Michael considering the education of his son to be highly important, appointed him a governour, named Boris Iwanowitz Morosou. So respected was the czar by his neighbours, that for the rest of his life his court was graced with embassadors from the princes of both Europe and Asia.

A. D. 1645. This pacifick prince died lamented by his subjects in the thirty-third year of his reign, leaving his son Alexis, but fifteen years old. This prince being, by the exertions of his governour Morosou immediately crowned, the latter became his confidant and prime minister, and placed his own relations and friends about his person. To preserve the authority he had gained, Morosou first endeavoured to divert the czar from business, by engaging him in parties of pleasure, and then sought to provide him with a wife, who being obliged to him for her elevation, might influence the czar to his purposes. With this view he selected the daughter of a boyar, who had two, and the czar falling into the snare, and becoming enamoured with the eldest, he himself married the younger, and associating himself with his father-in-law Miloslauski, and Leponti Stephanowitz Plesscou, judge of the principal court in Moscow, these formed a triumvirate, which, for a while, governed the whole empire; but with such insolence and rapacity that the people could scarcely submit to their sufferings from them. Trade was obstructed, monopolies were granted, and no employment could be had, but by dearly purchasing the favour of Morosou. At length the people of Moscow, goaded to resistance, rose in a body, broke into and plundered the houses of Morosou, Plesscou, and Trachanistou, and the chancellor of Russia, the last of whom they murdered, the two preceding they required the czar to order to execution; but the first was spared at the request of Alexis, and for the future greatly amended his conduct. As the Poles had gained Smolensko, Kiow, and Czernichow, by taking

advantage of the distressed situation of Russia, Alexis conceived himself justified in profiting in a similar mode by their troubles, and besieged and took Smolensko, and thence advanced into Lithuania, and took Wilna. A more numerous body of troops recovered the province of Czernichow, and the city of Kiow, and all his conquests within the ancient limits of Russia were relinquished to him by a truce made with John Casimir, king of Poland. Hostilities with the Swedes next occurred; but were, without any great advantage, closed by the peace of Cardis. Alexis endeavoured to improve the A. D. 1661. internal state of his dominions, encouraged science, endeavoured to improve the law, introduced the manufactures of silk and linen, and built several towns, which he peopled with Lithuanians and Poles. He greatly improved the culture of his dominions, and purposed to have had fleets on the Caspian and Black Seas; but his designs were checked by a rebellion, excited by Stenko Razin, chief of the Don Cossacks. This adventurer began his depredations by plundering and massacres on the Wolga, and then proceeded to ravage the adjoining country to the Caspian. His subsequent success, and his manifestation of greater regard for his common men than his officers, attracted to him a multitude of followers; elated with which he insolently sent embassadors to invite the sophy of Persia to form an alliance with him. Rapid was the subsequent increase of his power; he became master even of the city of Astracan; and from the ideas which the common people in every country are so ready to embrace, that their deliverance from the yoke of their superiors was his object, he found advocates even in Moscow; while the number actually in rebellion was increased to two hundred thousand men. But as soon as the czar was able to assemble an army to meet the rebels, they were on every side defeated, and the most rigorous measures being pursued against them, they were quickly reduced, and their leader himself betrayed and publickly executed at Moscow. A. D. 1676. King Michael of Poland having renewed the alliance with Russia, when the Turks attacked Poland, the czar assisted that country with twenty thousand men. After the conclusion of this, the divan resolving to engage in another war with Poland, Alexis powerfully assisted Michael again, and after the election of John Sobieski for

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his successor, added to this assistance; though the jealousy of the Poles would not permit the junction of his troops with their army. The Turkish troops entering the Ukraine, together with those in rebellion in it, over-ran the whole country, but retired ere the czar could advance against them; when the Poles made a successfull expedition into it, reducing almost the whole of it under their power.

A. D. 1676. In this situation of affairs the czar Alexis was cut off by death: by the first of his wives he left two sons, Theodore and John, and four daughters, Catherine, Theodosia, Mary, and Sophia. The children of the second marriage were Peter, who afterwards acquired the name of Great, and a daughter, Natalia. Theodore Alexowitz, the eldest surviving son of the deceased czar, was just turned of eighteen when he ascended the throne: he soon recovered from the Turks all they had conquered in the Ukraine; which drew on him all the forces of the Turks. After having checked which, Theodore applied in vain to the Poles for assistance; though, after some debates, a new treaty was concluded with this last people, by which it was agreed, that a resolution should be passed in the diet, concerning the succours demanded. The next campaign in the Ukraine was marked by loss and disgrace to the Russians, and in two years more peace was concluded between the czar and the sultan. Theodore, freed from the embarrassments of war, turned his attention to the improvement and embellishment of his capital, and to the formation of a new police in it. He now, too, selected a bride, the niece of a boyar, named Simon Iwanowitz Sabarofski: but this czarina dying the next year, he was persuaded to marry again, merely to prevent, if he could, the succession of his half-brother Peter to the throne: but the marriage festivities were quickly followed by a general

A. D. 1682. mourning for Theodore himself. This monarch having no children, considered his own brother John, who, subject to epileptic fits, was weak in understanding as well as in sight, unequal to the government of such an empire, and declared his half-brother Peter his successor. But the princess Sophia, third daughter of the czar Alexis, of great genius and unbounded ambition, excited among the Strelitzes an insurrection violent and sanguinary, who, after a cruel massacre of such as were odious to themselves or obnoxious to

Sophia, at length proclaimed the two princes, John and Peter, joint sovereigns, and associated their sister Sophia in the government as co-regent. Thus that princess in reality ascended the throne of Russia; for she received all the honours of the sovereignty; her image was on the coin; her hand was set to all dispatches; she had the first seat in council, and uncontrouled power. Peter was at this time but ten years old. For his elder brother Sophia selected a wife: but during the nuptial festivities, fresh disturbances were raised by the Strelitzes, who were at length brought to submission the most abject, through dread of the other forces of the empire acting against them. After the convulsions were appeased, Sophia created prince Basil Galitzin, a nobleman in every respect superior to every other person in the court of Moscow, generalissimo, minister of state, and chancellor. This minister, after repressing the insolence of the Strelitzes by distributing the most mutinous of their corps among distant regiments, brought about a peace with Sweden and Poland; the last ceding all her pretensions to Smolensko and the Ukraine. The disgrace which Russia still suffered, from paying an annual tribute to the Khan of Crim Tartary, gave rise to an expedition into that country under Galitzin himself, but in which from its having previously been laid waste, he returned without any advantage. The czar Peter's friends and relations, suspecting the designs of Sophia and her favourite, endeavoured to counterplot them. As the party grew strong, they again imposed the command of the army on Galitzin, who did no more in this second than in his first campaign. During the minister's absence, the czar Peter greatly augmented the number of his friends by marrying Ottokesa Federowna, the daughter of a boyar, and who soon after proved pregnant. Peter being informed of the occurrences in the Crimea loaded Galitzin with reproaches: yet, at the continued importunity of Sophia, he and his brother John permitted her to reward most profusely both the minister and the boyars which attended him. Sophia having now formed a design against the life of her brother Peter, just as the horrid purpose was about to be put in execution, the czar received notice to make his escape: he then took measures for both his own security, and to bring the traitors to justice; the whole plot was laid open by the confession of the

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conspirators. Some were capitally punished; Galitzin was banished, and amerced of all his possessions, and the princess Sophia was ordered into a convent, which she herself had built, and there she was kept until her death. From this time Peter was real sovereign; his brother John only lent his name to the publick acts; he led a retired life, and died in sixteen hundred and ninety-six. Peter himself was tall and well shaped, had eyes of remarkable vivacity, and a constitution adapted to robust exercises and hardships: his education had been purposely neglected: ashamed of his own ignorance, he endeavoured to correct it by application. The manufactories established in Moscow by the Germans, and the eminence of the Dutch in navigation, led him to conclude, that they were the most civilized nations. Determined to pursue his father's purpose of introducing the arts into Russia, he conceived a plan of forming a marine, as well as a body of well-disciplined land forces; while he, on the other hand, determined to abolish the seditious and barbarous band of the Strelitzes; and by the help of foreign officers, and by his own setting to his young boyars the example of serving successively as a private soldier, a serjeant, and a lieutenant of a company, he formed two new companies of guard, besides which he had a regiment of five thousand well trained men on whom he could depend, and who were nearly all foreigners; and at this time he had

A. D. 1690. the satisfaction of becoming a father, the czarina producing a son, who was named Petrowitz. A Swiss, of the name of Le Fort, was one of the great instruments employed by the czar, who made him both general and admiral. While Peter's attention was thus engaged, some disputes took place between the Russians and the Chinese, concerning the limits of their respective empires, and a conference was holden between embassadors of both nations at Niptchou, by the river Kerbechi, and conducted by two Jesuits in the Latin language; when a peace was concluded between the two nations. The differences with the Turks were not so easily arranged; especially as Peter was desirous of acquiring the command of the Black Sea. In the expedition undertaken against them, the czar appeared only as a volunteer; the siege of Asoph was undertaken, but, after the loss of a great number of men, was relin-

quished. Yet the next year a more successfull attack was made on it, and the town reduced: this the czar caused to be more strongly fortified; and here he ordered an harbour to be formed capable of receiving large vessels. Not content, however, with such an accommodation on the sea of Asoph, he wished to have one likewise on the Baltick. That he might no longer depend only on foreign artists, he sent to Venice and Leghorn sixty young Russians to learn navigation and naval architecture; forty more went to Holland, and others were sent to serve in the German armies to acquire the military discipline of that country. At length Peter determined to travel himself; and entrusting the government of his dominions to the boyar Stretchneff, and the knez Romadonouski, he set off in the train of three embassadors, taking for his personal attendants only a valet-de-chambre, a servant in livery, and a dwarf. When he arrived in Holland, he took up his residence in a small apartment in the yards of the Admiralty, he disguised himself in the dress of a Dutch skipper, and living as a common carpenter, he by degrees executed with his own hands the construction of every part of a ship, worked at the forges, rope yards, sawing mills, and the like. While Peter was working as a common carpenter in Holland, receiving advice of the double election in Poland, he sent king Augustus a promise to assist him with thirty thousand men, and issued orders to his army assembled in the Ukraine against the Turks. His troops obtained a victory over the Tartars near Asoph, and became masters of the town of Precop; while their sovereign to his mechanical pursuits added the study of anatomy and natural philosophy: he paid, too, a private visit to the stadtholder and king of England. Few were the manual arts with which he did not gain some acquaintance; and he was particularly pleased with rectifying the errours of geographers as to his own extensive dominions; and in the mean time his troops gained another victory near Asoph. Early in the next year Peter embarked in his embassador's retinue for England, and there employed himself in gaining further instruction, taking lodgings near the king's yard at Deptford. On his leaving England he took with him many artificers, and king William presented him with a beautifull yacht. Peter next proceeded to

A. D. 1696.

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Vienna, where he had an interview with the emperour Leopold: but here he received advice of an insurrection of the Strelitzes, who, encouraged by some of the old boyars, displeased at the many innovations, and by the clergy, alarmed at the czar's paying so little regard to their maxims, and not without some intrigues of the faction of the princess Sophia, assembled in a large body, and marched towards Moscow; but being met by general Gordon, at the head of well disciplined veterans, were defeated; and on Peter's return, which he accelerated on advice of the rebellion, he not only severely punished a great number of them, but reduced the corps. After this he established several regular regiments after the German regulations, gave to his soldiers a more convenient dress, and had them instructed in a more regular exercise. Neither did this able monarch omit to introduce several reformations in his council of state, the revenue, the church, and in common society itself: he altered, too, the Russian kalendar. But to render the dress of his people similar to that of the generality of Europeans, he was obliged to impose a tax on long coats and beards: to give more splendour to his court, he instituted the order of St. Andrew. During these

A. D. 1699. improvements at home, the czar made an advantageous peace with the Turks, by which he retained possession of Asoph. Mention has already been made of the alliance against Charles the twelfth of Sweden between Peter and the kings of Denmark and Poland: in consequence of this the czar laid siege to Narva, but in his absence his troops were shamefully defeated by the Swedes, the Russians rising against their German officers. This defeat overthrew not the czar's firmness of mind; but he applied himself to remedy the disordered state of his affairs. And thus is the history of Russia brought down to the end of the seventeenth century.

CHAPTER XII.

History of Europe, from the commencement of the eighteenth Century to the Peace of Paris in seventeen hundred and sixty-three.

History of Turkey in Europe resumed.

THE commencement of the eighteenth century was marked by an insurrection of the soldiery at Constantinople, who, after venting their rage on some of his ministers, at length deposed sultan Mustapha, and raised to his throne his brother Achmet, who was seated on it in the year seventeen hundred and three. This sultan Charles the twelfth of Sweden endeavoured to excite to enter into a war with Russia, but the grand vizir was twice changed before his intrigues succeeded, and a new vizir, Baltagi Mahomet, basha of Syria, was ordered to attack the dominions of the czar. The Turkish forces were assembled in the plains of Adrianople, and quickly led towards the Danube. The junction of the prince of Moldavia, Demetrius Cantemir, encouraged the czar Peter to advance to meet his enemy nearly as far as the capital of that country, but the inhabitants refused to desert the Turks; and the Russian army became so hemmed in by that of the Turks, that Peter was compelled to make proposals of peace, which the czarina Catherine wisely accompanied with rich presents to the vizir; and Peter was allowed to retreat with his army, on condition of restoring Asoph, destroying the harbour of Tangarok, and demolishing the forts built on the Palus Mæotis; withdrawing his troops from Poland, giving no further disturbance to the Cossacks, and permit-

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ting the Swedish monarch to return into his own kingdom. Though the grand seignor was at first pleased with the news of this treaty, he was soon persuaded by the agents of Charles, that his interests were betrayed: the grand vizir was consequently disgraced. Yet the efforts of the Swedish monarch to kindle a new war between the Turks and Russians proved ineffectual, and he was ordered home; and after experiencing very great forbearance on his arrogant demands and insolent refusal to leave Bender, he provoked the Turks by a mad resistance of their power to confine him as a prisoner; after continuing as such for ten months, in which he affected sickness, he was, at his own desire, dismissed with an escort. Two years after Achmet the third had so generously released this mad monarch, the Turk entered into hostilities against the Venetians, and
A. D. 1716. made himself master of the Morea. The emperour Charles the sixth, as guarantee of the treaty of Carlowitz, placed an army under the command of prince Eugene, who defeated the grand vizir at Peterwaradin. The next year he undertook, and at length succeeded in the siege of Belgrade: by this success was brought about
A. D. 1718. the peace of Passarowitz, by which the porte ceded to the emperour Belgrade, and all the bannat of Temeswaer, the Turk still retained the Morea. Achmet after this was engaged in a war with Kouli Khan, the usurper of the throne of Persia, and proving likewise unsuccessfull in this, the unpopularity of his measures brought on a rebellion of the janizaries, and he was deposed, and succeeded by Mahomet the fifth, his nephew. This revolution produced a considerable alteration in the mode of carrying on the Turkish government: it had been usual to delegate the whole conduct of the state to the vizir, but as the two last rebellions had originated in the too great power of those who held that office, Mahomet the fifth took the power into his own hands, and determined to change his vizirs frequently: yet he afterwards trusted too much to his kislar-aga, who, being a rapacious and insolent man, provoked the janizaries and the ulema to conspire his overthrow; and they manifested this by setting fire to Constantinople. The repetition of these fires excited the enquiry of the sultan, who sacrificed the kislar-aga and all his dependents, and seized on their ill-gotten treasure. Anne, the

empress of Russia, having repeatedly remonstrated to the Porte against the ravages of the Crim Tartars, and obtaining no redress, she ordered Asoph to be attacked, which was reduced, and the Crimea to be entered, when Prekop and Baniesary were taken, and the whole country laid waste: next campaign the Ukraine was entered, and Oczakow carried by assault. The emperour Charles the sixth, being bound by treaty to assist the Russians, united with them in the war: but his generals being repeatedly defeated, several places lost, and Belgrade besieged, he resolved to close the war; and the empress of Russia, apprehensive of being deserted by her ally, had also recourse to negociation, and the Turks obtained an advantageous peace; the emperour ceding to them Belgrade, Sabatz, the isle and fortress of Orseva, with Servia, and Austrian Walachia. The empress of Russia was left in possession of Asoph on demolishing the fortifications, and the ancient limits between the Russian and Turkish empires were re-established. On the death of Mahomet the fifth, his brother Osman came from confinement to the throne; and the then kislar-aga and his secretary gained the confidence of the new sovereign, and assumed the former power of these offices. On Osman's decease, Mustapha, the son of Achmet, already mentioned, succeeded; and placing implicit confidence in the vizir Ragib Mehemet, he followed his counsel, deprived the kislar-aga of his place and influence, and attached to the vizirship great part of the emoluments formerly given to the kislar-aga. Since that time the vizirs have been less frequently removed: neither did there occur in Turkey in Europe any other event that merits notice, ere the commencement of the year seventeen hundred and sixty-three.

A. D. 1736.

A. D. 1739.

A. D. 1754.

A. D. 1757.

History of Italy resumed.

The history of Italy during the seventeenth century ended with the election of Clement the eleventh to the pontificate. Having written with his own hand to James the second, the abdicated monarch of England, he privately granted the investiture of Naples to Philip the fifth of Spain; but was obliged to act with great caution between the parties of the French and the imperialists. Having published an edict against luxurious entertainments and the diversions of the Carnival, the purpose of it was much more effectually promoted by an inundation of the Tiber, and some

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terrifying shocks of an earthquake; which calamities occasioned a general penitence for some time. By his endeavours to offend no party the pope displeased both, and his territories suffered from the
A. D. 1703. armies of both, though they at length listened to an anathema, and departed from the dominions of the Church. Clement's attention was next called to the complaints of the Jesuits permitting their Chinese converts to continue the idolatrous worship of Confucius; and at last he pronounced sentence against them. Some difference having arisen between the emperour and the pope, the troops of the former in Italy manifested very little respect for the ecclesiastical territories; they marched through them to seize the kingdom of Naples, and they took possession of the duchy of Ferrara: after which, although his holiness had ordered levies throughout his states, the emperour having confiscated the estates of the duke of Mantua and Montserrat, he carried off from the Mantuan territory to Milan all the artillery and military stores, and gave the investiture of Montserrat to the duke of Savoy. These strong measures led to preparations for resistance on the part of Clement, but the superiority of the imperialists obliged him to submit to the emperour's terms, and
A. D. 1709. conclude a peace dictated by him. After this appearance of hostilities had subsided, the general peace of Italy was disturbed by the armament of the court of Spain to dispossess of the island of Sicily Victor Amadeus of Savoy, to whom that court had solemnly ceded and confirmed the cession by oath. This attack gave rise to a quadruple alliance between Amadeus, the emperour, France, and England. The imperialists entered Sicily to rescue it from the Spaniards, and a considerable contest there took place between the forces of the two powers: while these were thus contending, his holiness created ten new cardinals. So much, however, was the Spanish monarch pressed by the quadruple alliance, that he at length accepted
A. D. 1720. their terms of peace, and consented to relinquish his claims to the island of Sicily to the emperour, and those to that of Sardinia to its king, Victor Amadeus. Some regulations were also made with regard to the future descents of the Italian duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Placentia, against which the pope and the grand duke protested as infringements on their rights, but in vain. The following year died

the pope Clement the eleventh, in whose place was elected the cardinal Michael Angelo dè Conti, who took the name of Innocent the thirteenth. Another year having passed with Italy in tranquillity, the next was marked by the death of Cosmo the third grand duke of Florence, in the eighty-second year of his age, and he was succeeded by John Gaston, the only male remnant of the then reigning House of Medicis. Innocent having conducted himself in his pontificate with much applause died in the subsequent year, and A. D. 1724 cardinal Vincenzo Maria Orsino a Roman, was chosen to succeed him, assuming the title of Benedict the thirteenth, to whom the emperour for a price in tenths ceded the possession of the city of Comacchio. Ere the close of the year, that is on Christmas-eve, his holiness commenced the jubilee already notified, and declared his resolution to convoke in the following year a provincial council in the lateran. The jubilee called together a great concourse at Rome, the provincial council was well attended, and the measures of the prelates were such as to gain them the good will of the people. In a private treaty between the emperour and the king of Spain, as the A. D. 1725. former renounced all claim to the Spanish crown, the latter did the same in favour of the House of Austria on Naples, Sicily, the State of Milan and Flanders. The city of Palermo in Sicily suffered the following year greatly by an earthquake, and three thousand of its inhabitants were either killed or wounded. Neither did the succeeding pass without a destructive eruption of Mount Vesuvius. France, Spain, Holland, and England, having engaged by a treaty concluded at Seville to support the Infant Don Carlos in his claim to the succession of the duchy of Tuscany, the reigning duke was much embarrassed by the applications made to him to admit the garrisons of Don Carlos into his fortresses, and the opposition made to this both by policy and the court of Vienna. The emperour perceiving the inclination of the allies to carry their league into effect, A. D. 1729. introduced the next year into Italy about thirty thousand Germans, and made other preparations for a vigorous resistance to the purposes of the allies. While the commencement of hostilities was only menaced, Benedict the thirteenth was removed by death, and after A. D. 1730. more than four months contest he was succeeded by cardinal Lorenzo

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Corsini, who took the name of Clement the twelfth. But a treaty was the following year signed at Vienna, by which these hostile appearances were suspended. Though on the death of the duke of Parma a body of imperial troops had taken possession of Parma and Placentia; their commander declaring that he should leave the administration entirely to the regents whom the duke had appointed. For that prince had by his will bequeathed his dominions to Don Carlos, provided either his widow, then pregnant, should not produce a live child, or that child should die. The dowager at length proved not pregnant; when the imperial general withdrawing his troops the Infant landing at Leghorn, proceeded to take possession of his new territories; and Spanish troops were admitted by the duke of Tuscany into his dominions, to secure the reversion of them.

A. D. 1732. In the next year Victor Amadeus, king of Sardinia, who had resigned his crown to his son, wanted to recover it, but failed in his attempt, and was seized and conveyed to Rivoli under a guard. A war having broke out between the French king and the emperour, the former had for his allies Spain and Sardinia, and the king of the latter, assisted by a body of French, expelled the Imperialists from

A. D. 1733. the Milanese. The republick of Venice declined any share in these disputes, as Spain did; accepting the mediation of England. Success did not attend the imperial arms. The Neapolitan nobility having invited Don Carlos to take possession of that kingdom, he marched to Naples, and the count de Montemar having gained a complete victory over the Imperial viceroy, Don Carlos after being proclaimed king of Naples, reduced all the places garrisoned by Imperial troops, and resolved to subdue Sicily. Twenty thousand troops under the count de Montemar, now created by Don Carlos duke of Bitonte in Apuglia, rapidly overran that island, leaving the Imperialists in possession of only Messina, Syracuse, and Trepani. In the mean time in the upper part of Italy, the war was actively carried on between the Imperial forces and those of France and Piedmont, with much slaughter, and no great advantage on either side. Early in the following year Don Carlos became possessed of the three above-mentioned fortresses in Sicily. The allies formed the siege of Mantua, but an armistice put an end to the operations, and a peace

was at length concluded, by which Don Carlos was left in possession of Naples and Sicily, and it was agreed that the duchy of Tuscany on the decease of the then duke should descend to the duke of Lorrain, and Lorrain be annexed to the French monarchy. In the A. D. 1736. succeeding year the conduct of the Spaniards in Rome having excited some popular commotions in which the Spanish minister was insulted, the Spanish troops entered his holiness's territories, plundered some towns, and advancing towards the gates of the metropolis, demanded forty thousand crowns for the expenses of their expedition. And the Corsicans, who had elected baron Neuhoff for their king, under the name of Theodore, and rendered themselves nearly independent of Genoa, were ready to submit to Don Carlos; but this adventurer afterwards left the island for a time, yet his adherents continued the war, which was at last closed by the interposition of the king of France, who with the emperour became a guarantee of the conditions on which the island should continue under the Genoese. Theodore was seized at Naples, and afterwards ended his days in England. On the decease of the bishop of Rome, Clement A. D. 1740. the twelfth, his place was filled by cardinal Lambertini, who assumed the name of Benedict the fourteenth. Two years after this the peace of Italy was again disturbed by the queen of Hungary's troops on the one hand entering the duke of Modena's territories, and the duke of Montemar on the other entering the Bolognese with twenty thousand Spaniards. The duke of Modena withdrew from his dominions, and its capital opened its gates to the Sardinians; whose king entered into a treaty with the queen of Hungary to assist her on the cession of several places in her Italian dominions. The Spaniards after this entered Savoy and obliged the king of Sardinia to abandon it. But they afterward received a severe check from the troops of the queen of Hungary, and retired into the ecclesiastical state, which they treated without ceremony. The city of Messina in Sicily was this year visited with so destructive a A. D. 1742. plague, that the dead bodies lay in the streets mangled by dogs, through want of people to bury them. The next change of affairs in Italy worthy of remark was the declaration of the Genoese in favour of the French and Spaniards, promoted by the superiority which the

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forces of these powers had obtained over those of the Austrians in Italy. To make a diversion in favour of their allies, who were now much pressed and even lost Milan, the English bombarded Genoa, and other places. But in the following year affairs took a new turn, the Spaniards and their allies were compelled to abandon their

A. D. 1746. conquests one after another, and Genoa itself was reduced by the Austrians, and obliged to submit to harsh and very humiliating conditions imposed on her by them. But the common people were soon excited to new resistance, overpowered the Austrian soldiery, and with much slaughter expelled them from the city. This produced the advance of more Austrian troops, and a siege of Genoa, which however was raised without carrying the city. And after some other operations of less importance hostilities were stopped by an armistice, afterwards converted into a peace by the treaty of

A. D. 1748. Aix la Chapelle; in which it was stipulated with regard to Italy, that the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, should be ceded to the Infant Don Philip; but in failure of male issue from him, or in case of his succeeding to the throne either of Spain or of the two Sicilies, to return to the then present possessor; that the king of Sardinia be maintained in the possession of his estates; that the duke of Modena be re-established in his; and the republick of Genoa likewise; in all other respects things were to remain on the same footing in Italy, on which they were before the war. Nothing occurred in that country for some time more remarkable than the preparations by his holiness Benedict the fourteenth, for the celebration of the next jubilee, whose impious assumption of the power to forgive sins was so undisguisedly expressed in the bull issued on this occasion, that I cannot refrain from stating part of it in the margin.* This pontiff finished his career of blasphemy in the year seventeen hundred and fifty-eight, and was succeeded by Clement the thirteenth, whose pontificate continued to the end of the period, to the close of which it was proposed to bring down the present compilation.

* "During this whole year we grant the indulgence, *the entire pardon and remission of all their sins*, to all the faithfull of each sex, who being truly contrite, and having duly made confession, and received the communion, shall devoutly visit, &c."

The History of France resumed.

France saw the eighteenth century open with the menaces of an host of enemies, while her monarch grown old, was no longer able to direct with his former vigour the counsels of his ministers, or the operations of his generals. The last were planned in the cabinet of Madame Maintenon, and her creature Chamillard was at the head of the administration, with no other remarkable qualification than that of honesty. The emperour, England, and the States General, formed a league to wrest the crown of Spain from Lewis's grandson, Philip the fifth, who had taken possession of that throne; and these allies were soon joined by the duke of Savoy; to whom was afterwards added the king of Portugal. The intrigues in the Imperial court, and the tardiness of the measures of both that and the Dutch, enabled the French to make a powerfull resistance to their numerous assailants; yet the eminent abilities and extraordinary exertions of the English general Marlborough, supported by the invincible valour of the British troops, and assisted by the co-operation of the great prince Eugene, brought destruction on the armies of France: though the Imperial general the prince of Baden, acted a most treacherous part. After a contest extended in Italy, Germany, Flanders, and Spain, besides what occurred by sea, for more than twelve years, in which Lewis was reduced to sue for peace on very humiliating terms more than once; but met from the haughty obstinacy of the allies, a rejection of all his offers; a cessation of hostilities between France and England was agreed on, and this was followed by the conclusion of the peace of Utrecht, in which all the allies but the emperour concurred; yet he was compelled the next year to put a final close to the war by signing the treaty of Rastadt, A. D. 1713. in which Lewis obtained far from dishonourable terms; during the latter part of this war the dauphin of France, Lewis's only son, died of the small-pox. Soon after died the duke of Burgundy, to whom the title of dauphin had descended. Nor did the duke of Bretagne, on whom it next devolved, long survive, when it would have fallen to the duke of Anjou, who on the peace of Utrecht renounced all claim to the crown of France, that he might retain that of Spain. Lewis himself A. D. 1715. did not long survive the perfect restoration of peace, and when he died he left his successor a minor, under the guardianship of the

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duke of Orleans with the title of regent, who having by the seizure of the papers of the Spanish embassador discovered the plot carrying on against him, through the intrigues of Philip the fifth's prime minister cardinal Alberoni, and having before entered into the league with England and Holland, and the emperour already noticed as the Quadruple Alliance in the history of Italy, found his authority thenceforth firmly established. Under his administration John Law a Scotch adventurer, driven by her salutary laws from his native country for having murdered his antagonist in a duel, introduced the scheme of paying off the publick debt of France, by the establishment of a bank, which united with it the Mississippi and other trading companies, and engrossed the farm of the taxes. The idea of rich mines existing in the part of America granted to this Company, enticed numbers to purchase not only a share in their stock, but tracks of their lands, and the notes they issued amounted to four times the value of the current coin of the kingdom. From this disproportion suspicion arose, and publick credit rapidly sunk; Law who had been appointed comptrollor-general of the finances, was
A. D. 1720. hated, and obliged to retire from France. The bubble burst, thousands were involved in ruin, and government incurred an enormous load of debt by undertaking to repay the notes that had been issued. The administration of the duke of Orleans ended with
A. D. 1723. his life, and in him fell an able minister, an accomplished and a very dissipated man, whose example and policy promoted in France an universal corruption of manners. Lewis the fifteenth being now of age, the office of prime minister was entrusted to the duke of Bourbon; who was soon supplanted by cardinal Fleury, a man of pacifick disposition, and who had been preceptor to the king. Peace continued now with but little interruption for nearly twenty years, during which France and England suspending their ancient enmity, appeared as allies pursuing the objects of the Quadruple Alliance. One interruption of this tranquillity however, was occasioned by the emperour driving Stanislaus, whose daughter the king of France had married, from the throne of Poland. Offended at which, Lewis entered into alliance with the kings of Spain and Sardinia, and a
A. D. 1734. war already noticed was begun in Italy and the frontiers of Germany;

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the success of the French and their allies in which soon produced a peace, the terms of which have been before mentioned. The restless ambition of the French however permitted them not to neglect what they conceived a good opportunity of exalting the power of the House of Bourbon on the ruins of that of the House of Austria. When they saw Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary, and daughter of the emperour Charles the sixth, attacked by that most unprincipled publick robber, Frederick the third of Prussia, they prevailed on that weak monarch Lewis to set on foot two armies, and to solicit the most considerable princes of the empire, to concur in despoiling the House of Austria. For this righteous purpose a treaty was negociated with the elector of Bavaria, for his elevation to the imperial throne, and with the king of Prussia for the partition of the queen of Hungary's dominions. On the conclusion of these treaties the French armies began to act, and by one sent in the direction of Hanover, the king of Great Britain, George the second, was disgracefully intimidated from marching those troops to her assistance, which he had prepared for the support of the iniquitously assaulted queen. Though the elector met at first with some success, and having obtained possession of Prague was there crowned king of Bohemia, and afterwards elected emperour at Frankfort under the name of Charles the seventh; yet here his good fortune terminated. The Hungarians magnanimously supporting their persecuted queen, what she lost in Austria was quickly recovered, and the capital of Bavaria taken. On the other side, the king of Prussia became tired of the war, and on having the two Silesias and the county of Glatz ceded to him, deserted his allies, and engaged to observe a strict neutrality. In consequence of this the French were driven from Bohemia, but their forces, under the command of marshal Belleisle, made such a retreat from Prague as really covered the leader with glory. But the French growing tired of supporting the emperour they had made, offered terms of peace; but the queen of Hungary, elated probably with the success and support she experienced, rejected all pacifick proposals; and success still attending her commanders, the French generals were obliged to retreat before them, and the emperour expelled from his dominions, took refuge in

A. D. 1742.

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Frankfort, where he lived obscurely and in poverty. In Flanders the battle of Dettingen was fought, and with such imbecility were affairs conducted by the British monarch, that the French themselves were surprized at the little inconvenience which they suffered. The haughty conduct of the queen of Hungary having excited a jealousy of the power of the House of Austria in several princes of the empire, the French court seized the opportunity of entering into a secret negociation with the faithless king of Prussia, who had promised to observe a strict neutrality all the war, and some other members of the Germanick body; and a family compact was also formed between France and Spain; while the cardinal de Tencin, who had been raised by the interest of the House of Stuart, and taken the lead in the French administration on the death of cardinal Fleury, projected an enterprise for placing the Pretender on the throne of Great Britain, and Lewis entered warmly into it. For the accomplishment of this, an army of fifteen thousand men under count Saxe was assembled in Picardy, and transports collected in the neighbouring ports; but the first division was by a storm driven back to the French coast, and sir John Norris, with a superior British fleet, obliged the French admiral to make the best of his way to Brest. War now took place immediately between the French and English monarchs, the former of which also now formally declared it against the queen of Hungary. The operations of this war in Italy, have been already stated. The success of the French in Flanders, where Lewis appeared at the head of his army, was at first rapid; but the presence of the greater part of those troops being required in Alsace, to oppose prince Charles of Lorrain, the younger brother of the grand duke of Tuscany husband to the queen of Hungary, who had entered that country with six thousand Austrians, marshal Saxe, who was left to command in Flanders, could act only on the defensive. On his march towards Alsace, Lewis was stopped by a fever, by which his life was endangered; but the Austrians were drawn from Alsace, to oppose the Prussians, who had entered Bohemia; and Lewis after his recovery reduced Friburg. The emperour Charles the seventh dying, and the queen of Hungary coming to an accommodation with his son, an opportunity now

A. D. 1744.

offered for putting an end to the war; but this suited not the restless temper and sanguinary counsels of the French cabinet. The minister of war declared, that France having undertaken to give an head to the Germanick body, ought to hazard her last soldier rather than permit the grand duke of Tuscany to be chosen emperour. The war therefore was continued, and in Flanders was fought the battle of Fontenoy, in which the courage of the British troops astonished marshal Saxe, and the cowardice of the Dutch lost the allies the day; and in consequence of this loss all the fortresses in Austrian Flanders were reduced by the French. But however successfull in Flanders, Lewis could not on the Maine prevent the meeting of the electors, or their raising to the Imperial throne the grand duke of Tuscany, under the name of Francis the first. The A. D. 1745. king of Prussia, who appears to have had self interest for a motive in all his actions, having concluded a separate treaty, first with the elector of Saxony, and then with the queen of Hungary, detached himself from his ally of France. Lewis however yet triumphed by his great general marshal Saxe, took Brussels, and saw himself master of Brabant and Hainault. But the French met not with the same success in a maritime expedition for the recovery of Cape Breton, the armament fitted out for which was dispersed without having effected any thing. Some symptoms of a desire of peace emanating from the French court, a congress was opened at Breda, but to this the insolence of the French demands quickly put an end; and when the campaign began, the French poured troops into Brabant: the superior abilities of marshal Saxe, prevented the English commander, the duke of Cumberland, from accomplishing any thing, and when at length the battle of Laffeldt was fought, the cowardice of the Dutch troops, and the sullenness of the commander of the Austrians, co-operated in giving that victory to the French, which the valour of the British deserved. After which the French made themselves masters of the never-reduced fortress of Bergen-op-Zoom: in the mean time, however, great were their losses by sea. The ill success here, and the prospect of still worse, added to the exhausted state of his finances, and the ruin of the trade of his subjects, induced Lewis to make advances towards an accommoda- A. D. 1748.

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tion, and these led in less than a year to the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which has been before noticed. The few years of peace which now ensued, were disturbed in France by violent disputes between the clergy and the parliaments, yet these subsided without any consequence of importance. Prodigious efforts were at this period exerted to restore the French marine, and contracts were made even as far distant as Sweden, for building eighteen ships of the line; while the French in the East Indies were endeavouring to gain for themselves a great empire, but received a check in that design from the servants of the English East India Company. The

A. D. 1755. encroachments of the same people in America, gave rise to those disputes which produced an actual recommencement of war between the two nations. During these preparatory agitations, the consort of the dauphin produced a son, whom the king declared count of Provence. The French cabinet soon resolved on the invasion of Hanover, and finding the empress queen ready to embrace any alliance in opposition to the king of Prussia, who had concluded a treaty with the king of Great Britain, they formed an alliance with

A. D. 1756. her, Russia, and Sweden, and even ceded part of the barrier in the Netherlands, to cement this new and singular junction. Quickly after this an army under the duke of Richlieu attacked the island of Minorca, and in little more than two months reduced it. On the news of the invasion of Saxony by the king of Prussia, twenty-four thousand men under the command of the prince of Soubise, were ordered to the assistance of the empress queen. Some disputes with the parliament of Paris occurring, Lewis easily convinced them of his sovereign authority. In the beginning of the following year, as that monarch was stepping into his carriage, he was stabbed by a felon named Damiens. But the wound proved not mortal, and the assassin was taken, tried, and executed, in a most cruel manner. To the force under the prince of Soubise, was added another army much more numerous, under the marshal d'Etrées, for the invasion of the electorate of Hanover, which, at length, after the marshal Richelieu had taken the command, succeeded in forcing the duke of Cumberland, who commanded his father's forces, to make the convention of Closter-seven; by which his army was dissolved and

distributed into different cantonments without being disarmed, and the French left in possession of the countries they had conquered, Hanover itself being abandoned to them. And marshal Richelieu made his way into the old Marche of Brandenburgh, first exacting contributions, and then plundering the towns in the genuine French style under every government. The English by an expedition alarmed rather than injured part of the French coast. But on the other hand, the prince of Soubise having joined the Imperialists, this combined army received a severe defeat from the king of Prussia. The French too, having broken the conditions of the convention of Closter-seven, as well as refused to ratify it, the Hanoverians again took arms, and under the command of prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, drove them from Otterburg, Bremen, and Verden; and after further advantages gained over it, this lately victorious army found it difficult to repass the Rhine without being cut off. The favourite mistress of Lewis, madame Pompadour, ruled in his councils, and appointed his ministers; but the pressure of circumstances at length obliged him to call into employment some who were worthy of it, and the marshal duke of Belleisle was appointed the war minister. The miscarriage of some ill-judged and ill-managed attacks of the English on the French coasts, gave a temporary triumph to France. But in America and at sea, they suffered many losses, and various was the course of victory in Germany; yet though not vanquished, France, through the state of her finances, was on the eve of a national bankruptcy. Another attack on Hanover was planned, but a signal defeat given to the French army by that of the allies, under prince Ferdinand, blasted all their hopes of conquest; and this disappointment was accompanied by a train of losses in America, and the West Indies, followed by defeats at sea. Still the courage of the French people sunk not; the principal nobility and gentry followed their monarch's example, in giving their plate for the support of the war: the armies were augmented, and the duke of Broglio, now marshal, pushed forward into Hesse, and the count of St. Germain, penetrating through Westphalia joined him; yet the campaign produced little more than an action or two. In the East and West,

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and on the coast of Africa, the French were almost uniformly beaten. On the demise of the crown of Great Britain, therefore, they made an attempt at negociation. But the influence which France had

A. D. 1761.

acquired in the Spanish cabinet, enabling her to conclude the family compact with the branch of the House of Bourbon, reigning in Spain; this gave her more ground for not submitting to any disgracefull terms of peace; and therefore to the haughty language of the British prime minister, the duke of Choiseul replied with coolness and temper, and the prospect of peace was for some time laid aside; after which the family compact having been already signed, the Spanish court found, in the demands of England to be informed of the terms of that treaty, and the haughtiness with which they were made, occasion for a declaration of war; the English embassador at Madrid was told he might return to England, and the Spanish minister at London was recalled. The united sovereigns of France and Spain, endeavoured to persuade the king of Portugal to enter into alliance with them; but failing in this attempt, they jointly declared war against him. In Westphalia the commander of the French army was changed; but the advantages which prince Ferdinand had begun to obtain over it, were stopped by intelligence of a cessation of hostilities having been agreed to. Ere this, however, took place, France had met with great losses in another quarter: the West Indian Isles of Martinique, Grenada, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and every place occupied by Frenchmen in the Caribbee Islands, were taken by the English. While these conquests were making, France discerned in the state of parties in England a proper opportunity for renewing proposals of peace, which were readily accepted by the British ministry, and peace at length concluded;

A. D. 1763.

by which the conquests on both sides were restored, except that to Great Britain were ceded Canada, with the islands of St. John, and Cape Breton, the forts and factories which she had taken on the river Senegal, and the island of Grenada, and the Grenadines, and that France renounced all claim to the neutral islands, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. And thus is the history of France also brought down to the period proposed.

The History of Spain resumed.

The story of Spain during the seventeenth century was closed with the accession and proclamation of Philip the fifth, the first of the Bourbons who wore that crown, and he made his solemn entry into Madrid in April in the first year of the eighteenth century. The Spaniards to entertain their monarch had prepared an Auto de Fé for his reception, but he declined that gratifying spectacle. Though all the powers of Europe, but the emperour, acknowledged him for the king of Spain, the league for preventing this vast accession of power and territory to the House of Bourbon, which has been already noticed, soon took place, and that war followed which was ended by the treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt. But ere this war began, Lewis the fourteenth married his grandson to a daughter of the duke of Savoy. The young king manifested both in Spain, and in his Italian dominions, whither he soon repaired, a generous and amiable disposition, as well as great personal courage. When he returned into Spain, he found that many corresponded with his enemies; and the emperour Leopold having proclaimed the arch duke Charles king of Spain, that prince in the following year repaired to Portugal. The English now attacked and took the A. D. 1704. fortress of Gibraltar. The rival kings appeared in the field, and Philip formed the siege of Gibraltar; and it was carried on fruitlessly for six months. In the mean time the Portuguese made some conquests in Spain; some plots also were discovered, and particularly a conspiracy to seize the king and queen, and carry them prisoners to Lisbon. At length Charles the third sailed from Lisbon, and landed in Catalonia, with lord Peterborough and a body of ten thousand men, where, after the taking of Barcelona, all the province but the fortress of Roses, declared for Charles, and great part of Valencia did the same. Spain thus become the scene of war, continued so under various vicissitudes of the contending parties, in which they alternately got possession of the capital, and during these Philip's queen was delivered of a prince, who was named Lewis, and acknowledged heir apparent to the crown of Castile. But when, through the failure of his finances, and the inability of his grandfather to assist him, the affairs of Philip were reduced to a state nearly desperate, he embraced the advice of throwing himself wholly

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on the affection of the Spanish nation, which produced an enthusiastick attachment to his cause. The emperour Joseph dying in the year seventeen hundred and eleven, Charles left Spain for his hereditary dominions. The following year the negociations for a general peace being opened, king Philip in a general assembly of the cortes, signed an act of renunciation of the crown of France; which was ratified by the cortes. The king next applied himself to the regulation of the finances, and that of the military establishment, and put both in such order as to diffuse among his subjects a spirit of tranquillity and firmness, which had a considerable effect in ameliorating the

A. D. 1713. terms of peace; the treaty of which was signed at Utrecht; and Philip became master of Spain, and her American with her still more distant possessions. But the war with Charles, now emperour, was not yet closed; though it was not long ere a convention was agreed on for the evacuation of Catalonia by the German troops, with an article promising a general amnesty to the Catalans. These however, were not inclined to submit to Philip, except the nobility and clergy; and they prepared for a vigorous resistance, and formally declared war against France and Spain. This brought an army commanded by the duke of Berwick to the siege of Barcelona, which after a brave and obstinate defence, was taken on no other conditions than the inhabitants being promised their lives, and the place being secured from plunder. After which all Catalonia submitted, the Catalans were disarmed, and stript of their ancient privileges. In the mean time Philip lost his queen, but in less than a year was persuaded to take another in Elizabeth Farnese, niece of the duke of Parma, and heiress to the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Tuscany. Alberoni, a priest, and a native of Placentia, had contributed greatly to this match, and in consequence of it, soon rose to the highest favour in the Spanish court, and obtained a cardinal's hat. The new queen governed her husband, and Alberoni the queen. Something has already been said of this minister's extraordinary plans, and the defeat of them, and of the Quadruple Alliance, to which the visible ambition of Spain gave rise. The events too of the war which followed have been sufficiently detailed. The duke of Berwick's preparations on the side of France to besiege Roses and Pampeluna,

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after having made himself master of St. Sebastian and Fontarabia, brought Philip to accede to the terms of the allies, and Alberoni was disgraced. To cement the peace thus brought about, Philip sent into France his daughter, Mary Anne Victoire, to be educated in the court of Lewis the fifteenth, for whose queen she was intended, and after publishing a new collection of laws, he became so tired of the weight of a crown, that he resigned his to his eldest son Don Lewis, A. D. 1724. and retired to St. Ildefonso with his queen. The new king lived only to the following August, then dying of the small-pox, having previously returned the crown to his father, the last yielded to the earnest entreaties of his subjects to remount the throne. Philip irritated at his daughter's being sent back from France on account of her youth, ordered the French embassador to leave his dominions, and concluded a treaty with the emperour; by the persuasion of whose ministers the Spaniards undertook the siege of Gibraltar. The war A. D. 1727. with which Europe was thus menaced, was prevented by the prudent interposition of the French prime minister cardinal Fleury, and in a congress at Soissons, the interests of the several parties were finally arranged. Of the treaty of Seville mention has been already made, A. D. 1729. as well as of the measures taken to put Don Carlos in possession of the duchies of Parma and Placentia, on the death of Antonio Farnese without issue. The city of Oran was retaken from the Moors by the Spaniards in the year seventeen hundred and thirty-two; and in the next year Philip declared the war, the operations of which have been already related in the history of Italy, and during which Don Carlos obtained possession of the kingdom of the two Sicilies, and in return for the Imperial renunciation of which, he on his part renounced the duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Placentia. A. D. 1737. The money which Philip had agreed to pay to the English by the treaty of Pardo, for the damage their commerce had suffered from the Spanish Guarda Costas, not being disbursed, another war with that people ensued, and Portobello was taken by them. After a fruitless attempt to gain an establishment for his son Philip in Italy, the king sunk under his infirmities, and was succeeded by his eldest son Ferdinand the sixth: a prince whose whole attention was A. D. 1746. directed to the happiness of his subjects. He, supported by his

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minister the marquis of Ensenada, reformed various abuses which had crept into the administration of justice, and the management of the finances, revived commerce, established new manufactories, dug canals, and re-established the marine. He acceded to the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. The royal authority being affected by that which the court of Rome exercised in the collation of benefices, a concordat was made between this king and Benedict the fourteenth, to regulate the presentation to benefices in all parts of the Spanish territories. The loss of his queen so affected this amiable monarch, that he did not survive it quite a year; and on his decease the dowager of Philip the fifth assumed the government, until the arrival of her son Don Carlos, or Charles the third, from Naples; where he had his third son Ferdinand proclaimed king of the two Sicilies. His entrance into the Family Compact has been mentioned, and the consequent war with England, at the close of which, though he recovered the isles of Cuba, and Manilla, he was obliged to cede Florida, and the bay of Pensacola to the English, and restore all his conquests to Portugal, which brings the history of Spain to the Peace of Paris.

A. D. 1752.

A. D. 1759.

History of Portugal after its separation from Spain.

Of the revolution which placed the House of Bragança on the throne of Portugal, some account has already been given, and so much of the history of that kingdom even after its emancipation from the sovereignty of Spain, has necessarily been related in speaking of the transactions of the several kingdoms connected with it, that without descending to a particularity of detail, but little suited to an abridgment like the present, little more remains to be stated of Portugal, than the succession of monarchs from John the fourth, that duke of Bragança, who on their revolt from Spain was placed by the Portuguese on the throne of their country. John being solemnly crowned in December, sixteen hundred and thirty-nine, was in the subsequent month formally acknowledged by the states of the kingdom as sovereign of Portugal, and his son Theodosius, recognized as prince. John's moderation in demanding nothing from his subjects, but for the publick service, has well been supposed to have promoted the acknowledgement of him, by most of the foreign dependencies of Portugal. A powerfull conspiracy against him however was soon formed, yet no less quickly detected, and obviated,

by bringing the leaders to justice. Other plots followed, the Spanish not disdaining to take the basest means to destroy this rising power, but all in vain. Don John, though his popularity at home decreased, especially when a difference arose between him and his eldest son, who at length died in only his twentieth year, went steadily on, until A. D. 1653. he made his subjects soldiers able to face their late tyrants. But in three years time, he followed his son to another state. His son and A. D. 1656. heir, Don Alonzo Enriquez, was little more than thirteen years old at his accession to the throne. But his mother conducted the regency with such firmness and ability, that the war with Spain was vigorously continued, and honourable intercourse preserved with other courts, and she in a manner finished her administration with marrying her only daughter to Charles the second of England, to the great benefit of Portugal. Ere her son assumed the reins of government, the neglect of his education, or rather the little education to which he would submit, appeared in his extravagant conduct. He had two favourites of very low birth, Antonio and Juan Conti, the eldest of these having attached a party to himself, endeavoured to persuade the king to take the administration of affairs on himself; while the queen, both unwilling to part with her power, and apprehensive of the consequences of its being committed to improper hands, contrived to separate Conti from the king, and send him into banishment. But Alonso took a new favourite above exception for birth and abilities, the count of Castelmelhor, and by his advice triumphed over all his mother's efforts to retain the regency. The count then attempted to engross all the power of the government, and led the king to resent some of the affronts offered to him during the regency, by banishing several of the nobility. This gave more room for the intrigues of the queen, in consequence of which she was removed from the palace. When the curb of her presence being removed, the king's vices became less concealed, and the whole administration of affairs was devolved on the count; whose brother, Don Simon Vasconcelles became too the favourite of the king's brother Don Pedro, a prince of far superior abilities to Alonso. After the death of the queen mother, who had manifested a wish to set her younger son on the throne, under the plea of his brother's imbecility,

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the favourite acting more unreservedly, Don Pedro became more discontented, and the king grew more jealous of him, and at length treated him so ill, in depriving him of proper attendants, that soon after the arrival at Lisbon of the princess of Nemours, whom Alonso married, he withdrew from Lisbon, but was by the interposition of the young queen prevailed on not finally to leave the court. Still the ill will between him and his brother continued, the people being prejudiced in favour of the former, and the queen appearing partial to him. At length the differences in the court rose to that height, that Alonso's favourites were one after the other driven from him, even by publick insurrection; and he, forsaken by his friends, and pressed by his enemies, was at a loss how to act; when by the most moderate the assembling of the states of the kingdom was deemed the wisest measure. But the king being sensible of a design to dethrone him, would not assent to this, until by the general outcry mingled with threats, he was constrained. After which he was quickly forced by personal constraint, to make a formal renunciation

A. D. 1667. of his crown to his brother Don Pedro; who did not however immediately assume the royal title, but was proclaimed only regent governour of Portugal. Alonso was sent into the island of Tercera, where he continued some years, and was afterwards brought to the

A. D. 1683. castle of Cintra near Lisbon, where he died of an apoplexy, when forty years old. On his decease, Don Pedro the regent, was

A. D. 1686. proclaimed and crowned king. Disputes having arisen between the Jesuit missionaries and the Portuguese governours in South America, Pedro published a regulation by which the society were to have the temporal as well as the spiritual government of the towns and villages within the districts assigned them, and none but Indians were to be permitted to reside in the villages. This prince joined with the allied powers in the league against Lewis the fourteenth of France, and Philip the fifth of Spain, and bursting into Estremadura, took several cities there for Charles. But he died of an apoplexy in seventeen hundred and six. To his throne succeeded his son, John the fifth. He adhered to his father's engagements, and prepared to pursue the war with vigour, but met with repeated checks. He married a daughter of the emperour Leopold, and covenanted with

the king of Spain, that their mutual hostilities should not be extended to labourers or vine-dressers. By the peace of Utrecht, John procured for his subjects tranquillity, which continued uninterrupted during the whole course of his reign, except by his sending a squadron of ships to assist the Pope and the Venetians against the Turks. This monarch was fond of learning, and established the academy royal of the history of Portugal. For his humanity too, he merits praise. Until his time the prisoners of the inquisition had no advocate to defend their causes. For the reformation of this injustice he obtained a bull from Benedict the thirteenth, and A. D. 1725. followed it with a royal decree, obliging the inquisitors to communicate their sentences to the king's council, ere they were executed. Other beneficial reformations were prevented by the access of a disease, under which this prince suffered for the last eight years of his life, during which all branches of the government became out of order, and a large debt was brought on the state. On his death John was succeeded by his eldest son Joseph, who had married that daughter of Philip the fifth of Spain, which had been A. D. 1750. sent into France as the future wife of Lewis the fifteenth. He settled with Spain the boundaries of their respective dominions in South America; though he found it difficult to make the natives comply with their regulations. During his reign occurred at Lisbon that tremendous earthquake, which destroyed several quarters of that city, and killed more than fifteen thousand persons. Towards reimbursing himself for the damage sustained by this catastrophe, Joseph was greatly assisted by other countries. An attempt to assassinate this monarch having been made, which succeeded no A. D. 1759. further than to wound him severely, though not mortally, in the shoulder, ten of the authors or accomplices of this regicidal attempt were taken and executed; among whom were several of the nobility. At the same time were apprehended three jesuits accused of being concerned in the conspiracy. But these the king could not obtain permission from Rome to have tried by his officers, and he issued an edict banishing all the society from his dominions. Among the three accused was one named Malagrida, whom the king removed into the prison of the inquisition, to be tried for two books which he had

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written since his arrest, and by that mild tribunal he was condemned, delivered over to the secular arm, and burnt. Joseph having no son, his eldest daughter, the Infanta Mary Frances Elizabeth, was heiress to the crown, and according to the bishop of Rome's most blasphemous assumption of authority to suspend the divine laws, a dispensation

A. D. 1760. was obtained for her being married to her father's brother, Don Pedro. The king of Spain's declaration of war against Joseph, because he would not abandon the ancient alliance with England, and the sequel of it, have been already stated; here therefore the history of Portugal is brought down to the period specified for its close.

The history of England resumed.

Although in Britain the eighteenth century was commenced with deliberations on the French king's not adhering to the treaty of partition, king William thought proper to acknowledge his grandson for king of Spain. The revocation of this acknowledgement, in consequence of a league with the emperour, and the states general, and the military operations which ensued, have been already so far noticed in the histories of France and Spain, that very little remains to be said of them here. In the parliament at home faction presided, and so unjust, and so contrary to their duty to their sovereign and their country, was the conduct of the house of commons, that it deservedly excited the disgust of the people against them, a circumstance which encouraged the notorious Daniel de Foe, to make a most insolent attack on them, in a feigned memorial. After all the complaints against his administration both peers and commons declared their readiness to support the king in his alliances; and he, after nominating a regency, repaired to Holland. While he was

A. D. 1701. there, his father-in-law, king James, breathed his last at Germain's; the last period of his life had been dedicated to devotion, and he appears to have died in real charity with all men. Lewis the fourteenth publickly acknowledging his son as king of England, William commanded his embassador to come away without taking leave, and the French resident in London was ordered to leave the kingdom. Though William's constitution was now so impaired, that he perceived his death to be rapidly approaching, great were the diligence and spirit which he exerted in establishing the coalition against the House of Bourbon, and settling the plan of operations.

On his return to England finding the house of commons determined in their opposition to his measures, as well as become odious to the nation in general, he dissolved the parliament by proclamation, and immediately called another, which he opened by a speech, which has ever since been celebrated as an exemplar of royal oratory. This speech was answered not only by most loyal addresses, but by the more important return of efficient supplies. While with great unanimity of indignation against the French king every thing was in preparation for war, the king was thrown from his horse, and though he in a great measure recovered the lameness occasioned by the bruises which he then contracted, a fever accompanied with a diarrhœa coming on, he expired on the eighth of March. The princess Anne A. D. 1701-2 of Denmark, according to the act of settlement, immediately ascended the throne, and quickly announced her resolution to pursue the measures in which her predecessor had embarked. In her first speech to the parliament she expressed her satisfaction at the concurrence of both houses in her sentiments, and recommended to their consideration an union between the kingdoms of England and Scotland. The influence which the countess of Marlborough had acquired over the mind of the queen, not only secured the continuance of her husband in command, but accumulated on him the honours of the garter, of embassador extraordinary, and plenipotentiary to the states general, and of captain general of the forces both at home and abroad. In the former of these characters he reanimated the Dutch, dejected at the loss of their stadtholder, and gained the entire confidence of those who were in the management of their affairs; while he at home, through his wife, directed all the queen's resolutions; who having informed the house of commons of her intention and had their approbation, had war formally declared against France. A bill was now passed for naming commissioners to treat with those of Scotland, on an union between the two kingdoms. The earl of Marlborough on his return to Holland, was declared captain general of the Dutch forces, and by the rapidity of his conquests from their enemies, justified their choice. Neither was his victorious career confined to one campaign; nor the triumphs of the allies to the land; since though an attack on Cadiz miscarried, one

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on Vigo, where some rich galleons had taken refuge, succeeded. The earl of Marlborough on his return from the continent was made a duke. Much the same routine of going and coming, of victories abroad, and honours at home, continued for nine years more; in the space of which too, the English naval forces gained many advantages, and particularly in assisting in the capture of Gibraltar, in the conquest of Sardinia, and in that of Minorca. The great work of the union of England and Scotland was, after much opposition from the Whig faction in the latter kingdom, finally settled in August, seventeen hundred and six, but the act was not carried into execution until the following May. Two years after this the queen lost her husband, prince George of Denmark; and in the following, Dr. Sacheverel, rector of St. Saviour's in Southwark, was impeached by the house of commons of high crimes and misdemeanours, for preaching and publishing two sermons, in which the doctrine of passive obedience was maintained, and principles of the revolution censured. The doctor was tried by the house of peers, silenced for three years, and his sermons were ordered to be burnt by the hands of the common hangman. But the preacher himself being supported by all the Tories, no small part of the clergy, and the mob, a great ferment was excited in the nation, which in some measure, promoted that change of counsels which was about to take place at the court. The duchess of Marlborough being supplanted in the queen's

A. D. 1710.

favour by Mrs. Masham, all the Whigs were by degrees deprived of their offices, but the duke of Marlborough. The new ministers suggested, that this great commander was desirous of continuing the war only from motives of self interest; while the nation derived from it only ruin. He was continued however in command until after Mr. Harley was, on the death of lord Rochester, appointed lord treasurer, and placed at the head of affairs. The house of commons, much changed since the last parliament, to prove their attachment to the church, passed a bill for building fifty new churches, which has never been fully put in execution, though there are certain permanent commissioners for the purpose. While the duke of Marlborough

A. D. 1711.

was signalizing himself in his last campaign, the ministers were carrying on negociations for a peace, and preliminaries were actually

agreed on. Then the duke of Marlborough being no longer necessary, his enemies redoubled their efforts to ruin him; and he being charged with receiving a yearly sum from the contractors for bread, the queen, under the plea of giving an opportunity for an impartial examination of the matter, dismissed him from all his employments. The duke of Ormond succeeded him in the command of the army, and receiving orders not to act offensively, separated his troops from those of the allies, and published a suspension of arms: and in the following year peace was concluded with France and Spain. This treaty was grievously complained of by the Whigs, and the prevalent discontents were increased by a new duty imposed on malt, particularly in Scotland; and a motion was absolutely made in the house of lords for a bill to dissolve the union. The fury of the factions and the cabals in the court did not tend to diminish the indisposition of the queen, who at length sunk under her diseases and anxiety. On the queen's decease, George Lewis, elector of Hanover, A. D. 1714. son of the princess Sophia, and great-grandson of James the first, was proclaimed king of Great Britain; and on his arrival in London was quickly crowned. The new monarch declared himself openly in favour of the Whigs. The ministry was changed, committees of the house of commons were appointed for examining the measures of the late administration, and lord Oxford, though dangerously ill, was committed to the tower; but the duke of Ormond, and lord Bolingbroke, observing the rising storm withdrew to the continent. The indecent rigour with which the Whigs persecuted the objects of their dislike, only fomented the discontents in the nation, and these affording encouragement to the friends of the Pretender, a rebellion actually broke out in Scotland, whither the Pretender himself repaired; but it was quickly suppressed, and he returned to Flanders. Exemplary were the executions which followed. The inconvenience of triennial parliaments was now felt, and after much opposition, a statute was enacted for extending the duration of them to seven years. The Emperour, France, and England, and at A. D. 1718. length Holland, formed the Quadruple Alliance, already spoken of; and ere war was declared, admiral Byng attacked and destroyed many ships of a Spanish squadron. The imposition which Law had

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practised in France, was imitated in England with regard to the South Sea scheme, and raised a spirit of adventure that almost surpasses credibility: at length the bubble burst, numbers were
A. D. 1720. ruined, and the publick credit was restored only by the interposition of parliament. A report of a conspiracy next attracted the attention of the publick, and the bishop of Rochester, Dr. Atterbury, was implicated in it, deprived of his preferment, and banished the kingdom. On the other hand, the king's pardon was granted to lord Bolingbroke, and two years after his estates were restored to him by act of parliament. It was in the same year, that the order of the bath was re-established, and the number of knights reduced to thirty-eight. In the mean time the lord chancellor, the earl of Macclesfield, was impeached, and being found guilty of peculation, was fined thirty thousand pounds. The king having set off for
A. D. 1727. Hanover, was on his journey attacked with a disorder of which he died at Osnaburg. The news of this arriving in England, George prince of Wales, was immediately proclaimed in lieu of his father. Though some alterations were made in the arrangement of the offices, the same ministry were in general continued, and Sir Robert Walpole remained at the head of the treasury. Complaints having been made of injuries sustained from the Spaniards in America, the disputes between the countries were again settled by the treaty of
A. D. 1729. Seville. The following year the king's eldest son, Frederick, arrived in England, and was introduced into the privy council, and created prince of Wales. In the year seventeen hundred and thirty-six, this prince married a princess of Saxe-Gotha. But his highness did not notify her pregnancy to the king, until she was near her time; at which his father was so highly offended, that he ordered him to quit St. James's palace, neither would he permit him
A. D. 1737. to see the queen on her death-bed. The illicit trade carried on by the British merchants in America, gave rise to disputes with the
A. D. 1739. Spaniards, which occasioned a war between the two countries, which has been before spoken of, and in two years time the French joined the Spaniards. The duke of Cumberland took the command of the king's army in Germany, and lost the battle of Fontenoy, though it was most bravely contested by the British troops. A

rebellion in favour of the Pretender being again excited in Scotland, that unfortunate individual landed in that country; but after a gleam of success, the rebels were defeated by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, and the rebellion was quickly extinguished, and those concerned in it were punished with a severity much censured. The duke of Cumberland obtained in the low countries much praise for his courage, but still was beaten, partly by the superiority of the generals opposed to him, and through want of being supported by the Dutch troops. At length hostilities were terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in seventeen hundred and forty-eight. During the tranquillity which ensued, a reformation was made in England in the kalendar, and the Gregorian style adopted. Frederick prince of Wales died in the same year in which this act passed. The disputes concerning the boundaries of Nova Scotia, which France had ceded to England, at length produced another war; of which A. D. 1756. the commencement was not marked by success, and one admiral (Byng) was shot; but whether justly or not has been doubted. In India the English suffered at first both from the French and the natives; but afterwards gained a great superiority over both. Victory too attended their forces in the West Indies, in America, and on the western coast of Africa; and both at sea and on her coasts in Europe, France felt the weight of her arms. Nor in Germany did she fail to do the same, but with greater proportionate loss on the side of her adversary. George the second was torn from life by an apoplexy, and was succeeded by his grandson, who A. D. 1760. became the third king of Great Britain, of that name. The young monarch had not worn the crown a twelvemonth, ere he was married to the princess Charlotte Sophia, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz. The war which Mr. Pitt, the then prime minister, was conducting with great success, though at a vast expense, continued; but that minister finding his advice not listened to, resigned his office; which was filled by the earl of Bute, who afterward too succeeded to that of the first lord of the treasury, instead of the duke of Newcastle. The renewal of the family compact having led to a declaration of war against Spain, that crown lost the islands of Cuba and Manilla, and France several in the West Indies. But while this course of triumphs

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was going on, negociations for peace were begun in Europe, and the definitive treaty was concluded at Paris on the tenth of February, seventeen hundred and sixty three.

The History of Sweden resumed.

The victory gained over the Russians by Charles the twelfth before Narva, closed the history of Sweden for the seventeenth century. After having gained this advantage over the czar, the king turned both his arms and his intrigues against Augustus king of Poland, and succeeded by both, driving that monarch from his capital, and inducing his subjects to formally dethrone him; when

A. D. 1704.

he placed Stanislaus Lecsincsky, palatine of Pomerania, on the throne, and made himself master of all Poland. Against the Russians who attempted to assist the unhappy Augustus, the Swede had a course of victories, and at length entered Saxony, and took military possession of it, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the German diet. This loss of all his dominions, at last drove Augustus to consent to a very disgracefull and in fact dishonest treaty; by one article of which he gave up to the vengeance of Charles, the Russian resident with him; whom the Swede, as a subject of his own, though he had been banished, condemned to be broken on the wheel, and most cruelly was the savage tyrant's sentence executed. In Saxony, Charles dictated as he pleased to the emperour, and indeed seems to have inspired with terrour nearly all the sovereigns of Europe; but the great object of his attack was the czar. Against him he accordingly marched, and on his way was met by a Turkish embassador, sent to fix him in the interest of the grand signor. Charles pursued the Russians towards their own country, passing in ice and snow through forests, and over morasses, rocks, mountains, and rivers. But this extraordinary conquerour had foreseen the difficulties which he should have to encounter, and so provided for them, that he arrived at an inhabited country, ere his army was distressed for provisions. But in his progress beyond the Borysthena, his troops suffered much, and his haughty answer to the czar's proposals of a peace, "that he would treat at Moscow," did not intimidate that monarch. He did every thing in his power to impede the march of the Swedes and distress them, but their perseverance went through every toil, though with not only the loss

of the greater part of their cannon, and all their draught horses, but the reduction of themselves to twenty-four thousand men. At length retreat became impracticable, and Charles pushing forward reached Pultowa on the eastern frontier of the Ukraine. Here were magazines formed by the czar, and Charles was induced to lay siege to the place. But the czar presented himself with a very superiour army, and a battle took place; the Swedes were beaten; Charles was wounded, and forced to retreat into the Turkish dominions, while all his army was lost. The Turks received Charles as a king. While he was thus resident at a distance, those whom he treated with such haughtiness seized the opportunity of retaliation; Augustus recovered Poland, and Frederick the fourth, king of Denmark, declared war against Sweden. In this country the advice of their monarch's disaster, put an end to all the disputes that had taken place between the regency Charles had left, and the senate, and they vigorously and successfully exerted themselves to repel the attack of the Danes. Meanwhile Charles's money and intrigues gained him a powerfull party in the divan, and the grand vizier was commanded to attack the Muscovites; but by the shrewd policy of the czarina, Peter was A. D. 1711. delivered from the danger into which he had fallen, and Charles's exile was prolonged. This prince afterwards behaved with an obstinacy and insolence towards the Turks which savoured of insanity. In the mean time Russia, Poland, and Denmark, entering into a stricter alliance, the kings of the two last invaded Swedish Pomerania. But not being able to subdue all its fortresses, the king of Denmark turned his arms against the duchy of Bremen, and quickly conquered that. Yet the Swedes gained a very important victory over the Danes in Pomerania. In the mean time, Charles rejected not only the hints, but the requests of the Turks, to leave their territories, and pleading his inability to pay his debts, as the reason for his not going, twelve hundred purses were presented to him; these he squandered, and had the mean impudence to demand a thousand more; peremptory orders were then sent him to quit the grand signor's dominions, with menaces on his non-compliance. These he received with the greatest insolence, and madly determined to oppose twenty thousand Turks with three hundred Swedes. After

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a scene of invincible obstinacy and insane valour, surpassing even what has been fabled, he was taken prisoner, and by force carried to the tent of the bashaw. When this singular scene was passing, the czar made himself master of Finland. The distress to which Sweden was now reduced, and the little hope its people entertained of being relieved by any prudent step of Charles, induced the senate to entreat the king's sister, Ulrica Eleonora, to assume the administration of affairs during her brother's absence. She assented, and an assembly of the states was convoked, who determined on negociations. In the mean time, however, the Swedish fleet was beaten with great loss, by that of Russia. Charles's behaviour after he was removed, has already been stated in the history of the Ottoman empire. Having at length condescended to set out with the escort the Turks would grant him, he found the countries through which he passed all prepared to treat him in the handsomest manner; but the ceremony of this retarding his progress, he dismissed his Turkish attendants, and bidding his own people make the best of their way to Stralsund, he, in the habit of a German officer, and confining himself to the bye roads, made almost the tour of Germany, and arrived safe at Stralsund, as much to the joy as to the surprise of the people. No sooner had he taken his first sleep, than this indefatigable butcher of his species, ordered the war to be renewed with redoubled vigour; and such was the military rage that had seized the youth of Sweden, that the levies were complete in a few weeks; though so exhausted was the country, that the hands left to cultivate the land, consisted of the infirm and the aged. While Charles continued at Stralsund, the nuptials of his sister, the princess royal, and the hereditary prince of Hesse were celebrated. In the mean time, the Russians ravaged the coasts of Ahland and Finland, and the Swedish fleet suffered a defeat, and it appeared that the power of the kingdom was enervated, the finances destroyed, and the forces reduced to a shadow. Yet the king's courage was not diminished, neither did he alter his conduct. He involved himself in war with the king of Prussia, in addition to the rest of his enemies; yet farther, the king of England, as elector of Hanover, joined in the league against him. Stralsund, in which Charles himself commanded, was

besieged by the kings of Denmark and Prussia, and after a vigorous resistance and the Swedish monarch's escape from it, capitulated. Charles would not go to Stockholm; but depriving the senate, with whom he was offended, of the few privileges which they yet retained, he committed the whole administration of affairs to his chief favourite, baron Goertz, formerly minister of Holstein. After he had assembled an army, he made an irruption into Norway, which, though attended at first with some success, from the vigour with which it was commenced, produced no permanent benefit. The extensive projects of his minister, who negociated a league with the czar, for the restoration of James the second to the throne of England, and of Stanislaus to that of Poland, were pleasing to Charles; and having squeezed from his people money to support the necessary forces, he again penetrated into Norway; where at the siege of Frederickshal, he met with death by a cannon ball, in a very exposed situation, which he most obstinately refused to leave. On the news of the death of Charles, his sister Ulrica Eleanora, was A. D. 1718. prevailed on by the senate to restore their privileges, summon an assembly of the states, and submit to receive the crown not as hereditary, but elective. The baron Goertz was quickly sacrificed to the vengeance of those whom he had offended, and peace was brought about with all who were engaged in hostilities against Sweden, except Russia. In the mean time, at the earnest instance of the queen, and after some further alterations in the constitution, to which he gave his formal assent, her husband, the prince of Hesse, was crowned by the name of Frederick the first. He was soon induced to conclude a peace with the czar, by which were ceded to that monarch, Livonia, Ingermania, part of Carelia, the territory of Wiburg, and the islands Oesel, Dragac, and Maen. A considerable A. D. 1721. interval of tranquillity now ensued, and was employed in efforts to repair the evils caused by the preceding wars. Towards the end of this period, Sweden renewed her alliance with France, accepting from that crown a subsidy of two millions. The peace enjoyed by the Swedes was interrupted by a declaration of war made by Frederick A. D. 1741. against the czar, Ivan the sixth. But misfortune only attended this measure; though in little more than two years peace was obtained,

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through the mediation of England, on easier terms than might have been expected. In the first year of this war Frederick lost his queen: and on its close the ill success of it was avenged on the two generals Buddensbroeck and Lewenhaupt, who were beheaded by order of the senate. Frederick, after having given to agriculture such encouragement as much improved it in Sweden, ended his days in Stockholm, having in his last years either instituted or revived three orders of knighthood; those of the seraphim, the sword, and the polar star. Adolphus Frederick of Holstein-Eutin, bishop of Lubeck, had been several years before elected by the diet, successor to the crown of Sweden, and on the decease of Frederick the first, was seated on the throne. But he was perpetually crossed by two factions, denominated the caps and the hats: the former supported by Russia, and the latter by France. They grounded their opposition to the sovereign on the constitution, the defects of which could not be concealed. The diet treated both the king and the queen with insolence intolerable; and even interfered in the education of the prince royal, in a manner for which no motive was visible. Yet the king neglected nothing relating to the wants, or the security of the state. Several provinces of Sweden feeling a scarcity, he caused to be imported a great quantity of grain from Russia; with which country Sweden was then in alliance, against the king of Prussia. The operations of the Swedish forces in this war, though often successfull, were not decisive; and after the death of the empress Elizabeth, the senate suffered from the observation made by the states on their conduct; and the king caused a suspension of arms to take place, which was followed by a peace, for which Sweden was obliged to the good offices of the queen, who was sister to the king of Prussia. Nothing further occurred worthy of notice in Sweden, previous to the peace of Paris; here, therefore, finally closes the abridgment of the history of that country.

A. D. 1751.

The History of Denmark resumed.

The history of this kingdom was suspended at the conclusion of the peace of Travendalh. About eight years after this, Frederick having returned from the tour of Italy, attacked the Swedes in Schonen with bad success, though by sea he was more happy. Three years after, he, with the Poles, fell on Swedish Pomerania, and

in the next year made himself master of Bremen, and the city of Stadt. But his army was afterwards defeated by the Swedes, and Altona burnt to the ground. In another three years he met with better success, but did not pursue the advantages he had gained, as they contributed more to the benefit of his allies than to his own; and therefore he, under mediation of the king of Great Britain, concluded a peace. From this period, nothing occurred to disturb the tranquillity of Denmark, but the burning of its capital, ere the decease of this monarch; which took place in the year seventeen hundred and thirty. Frederick the fourth was succeeded by his son Christiern the sixth, whose reign proved peaceable and flourishing. He built at Copenhagen a magnificent palace, and purchased the duchy of Sleswick of the duke of Holstein. He established an East India Company, and founded a bank at Copenhagen. After other measures tending to the benefit of his subjects, this prince died, when he had filled the throne sixteen years. The crown of Denmark now descended to his son Frederick the fifth, who survived beyond the era to which this abridgment extends. This prince attended principally to the promotion of industry and trade. The manufacturers and the forces of Denmark proportionably increased in his reign; during which his kingdom acquired considerable weight in the political system of Europe.

A. D. 1720.

A. D. 1746.

The emperour Leopold commenced the eighteenth century with sending into Italy prince Eugene, who gained two battles that year, and in the next suffered a defeat from the French. The German diet declared war against France; but the elector of Bavaria strongly took the part of that country, and the elector of Cologne professed to be neutral. The following year Leopold gave his son, the archduke Charles, the title of king of Spain, and that prince was sent to Lisbon, as has been already stated. While great part of Europe was engaged in this war of the succession, the emperour himself died; and was succeeded by his eldest son Joseph, then king of the Romans. He pursued his father's system of politicks, and the victories which the allies gained over the French in Italy, and the Low Countries, rendered his reign glorious. He laid the electors of Bavaria and Cologne, who had declared for France, under the ban

The History of Germany resumed.

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A. D. 1707.

of the empire, and deprived them of their electorates, the fiefs of which he gave to his own relations and creatures; and detained the children of the elector of Bavaria, taking from them even their name. Against this violence several princes of the empire vainly protested. When the French were obliged to evacuate Lombardy, the emperour was left at liberty to pursue his design on Naples, in which city his forces were received with joy, and they soon obtained possession of the whole kingdom. The allied fleet conquered Sardinia with equal ease. The emperour then undertook to revive the rights of the empire over the great fiefs of Italy. The princes and the republicks opposed his claims with the pen, and were for a time obliged to pay the taxes which he imposed on them, and receive the troops he sent into winter quarters with them. Clement the fourteenth took courage to oppose him, but quickly felt his own weakness, and to obtain peace was obliged to disband his troops, support those of the empire, abandon Commachio to them, and acknowledge Charles for king of Spain. Both friends and enemies felt the power of Joseph; but while he was promoting the imperial authority he was taken off by the small-pox. Though he left two daughters, he by his will appointed his brother Charles successor to all the estates of the House of Austria. This prince was elected emperour too, instead of his brother, an occurrence which caused some alteration in the system of the allies, who did not wish to see the imperial crown, and that of Spain on the same head. The electors made Charles sign a capitulation, by one article of which the princes deprived of their estates were to be re-established in their rights. Charles refusing his consent to the treaty of Utrecht, after having lost Landau and Fribourg concluded with France the treaty of Rastadt, by which he obtained the Spanish Netherlands, the kingdoms of Naples and Sardinia, the Milanese, and the sea coasts of Tuscany; and after a long negociation he concluded with the states general a barrier treaty, by which he consented to the Dutch putting garrisons into certain fortresses of the Austrian Netherlands. The war declared by sultan Achmet the third, against the Venetians, induced the emperour to take the same step against him, and glorious was the course of the operations of prince Eugene. But

the unexpected descent of the Spaniards in Sicily, and their seizure of Sardinia, interrupted those victories, and compelled Charles to conclude a peace with the Turks; by the articles of which, however, he gained the bannat of Temeswaer, Belgrade, and Servia. After the emperour had sent part of his forces into Italy, to be within reach of Naples and Sicily, he concluded the Quadruple Alliance, between himself, France, England, and Holland, and on the disgrace of cardinal Alberoni, Philip the fifth entered into that alliance. By an article of this treaty, the duke of Savoy was deprived of Sicily in favour of the emperour, and received Sardinia in exchange. The year preceding this, Charles had issued a pragmatick sanction, by which in default of male issue, he called to the succession of his estates, first his eldest daughter, afterwards his others, then his nieces, &c. This regulation was adopted by the Austrian Netherlands, and guaranteed in process of time by England, Holland, Spain, Saxony, and France. The houses of Bavaria, and the Palatinate, alone protested against it. Peace being established in his hereditary estates, the emperour applied himself to give them plenty also. He established a Levant Company in Vienna, made several great roads in Istria, established manufactories in all the Austrian estates, and rendered the trade of Istria very flourishing. The courts of Petersburgh and Vienna endeavoured, on the death of Augustus Frederick the first, king of Poland, to raise to the throne the son of the deceased, instead of Stanislaus, who was supported by the king of France. The consequence of the emperour's success was a bloody war with France, ending by a peace, by which part of the Milanese was given to the king of Sardinia, the ally of France, and the kingdom of the two Sicilies was ceded to Don Carlos; and the duke Francis, who had married the emperour's eldest daughter, was obliged to resign his duchies of Lorrain and Bar, to king Stanislaus, on condition of having assured to him the succession of the grand duchy of Tuscany. Being freed from this war, Charles was drawn into another against the Turks, which was, after three unsuccessfull campaigns, closed by a disadvantageous peace. And the next year the reign itself of this emperour was terminated by his decease. Maria Theresa, married to Francis duke of Lorrain, was his heiress.

A. D. 1735.

A. D. 1737.

A. D. 1740.

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But her husband, whom Charles was about to have had elected king of the Romans, did not immediately succeed to the empire; for Charles the elector of Bavaria, laid claim to the inheritance of the House of Austria, and being most iniquitously supported by the French court, not only obtained possession of the capital of Bohemia, where he was proclaimed king of that country, but elected, and crowned emperour. Yet his reign lasted but three years, and was employed in incessant war, the end of which he lived not to see. On his decease Maria Theresa's husband, the grand duke of Tuscany, was, notwithstanding the opposition of the elector Palatine, and the king of
A. D. 1745. Prussia, elected emperour. Tranquillity having been restored to Europe, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, the emperour applied himself to the restoration of harmony among the members of the Germanick body, and the reparation of the evils which war had occasioned in the empire; but these well-directed attempts were interrupted by a new war raised in Germany, and which closed by the peace of Hubertsburg, between the empress, the king of Poland, and the king of Prussia, at the very period when the course of this
A. D. 1763. history closes.

The History of the United Provinces resumed.

A. D. 1702. As long as they had a common sovereign, the histories of Great Britain and the United Provinces were in the leading events of them nearly identified. On the death of king William, the states general, like England, followed the impressions which he had left them, as to the danger arising from the exorbitant power of France, and as has been related in the history of England, made one cause, and indeed one army, with that of queen Anne; until just previous to the peace of Utrecht: to this, however, they at length acceded. Their barrier treaty with the emperour, has been already noticed. The stadtholdership continued vacant from the death of William the third, until the year seventeen hundred and forty-seven; when the war carried on without much success against France, appeared to the party of the House of Orange, to afford a favourable opportunity for reviving the dignity. After some opposition from the warmest republicans, at whose head was the grand pensionary Gilles, the states general declared, William Henry Frison, the son of John William Prince of Nassau Diest, stadtholder, captain and admiral

general of all the forces of the republick. After which a law was passed to render the stadtholdership hereditary in his descendants. William Henry died at the Hague, in seventeen hundred and fifty-one. To him succeeded his son, William the fifth, under the regency of his mother, and this prince survived the era at which this history closes. A. D. 1747.

The history of Poland resumed.

The commencement of the eighteenth century in Poland was marked by that course of victories of Charles the twelfth of Sweden, over Frederick Augustus, which have been already stated; neither did scarcely any remarkable particular occur in Poland during the reign of that conquerour, which was not noticed in the history of it; the deposing of Frederick, the placing of Stanislaus Leczinski on the throne, the recovery of his capital for a very short time, by the former; his renunciation of the Polish crown, and his alliance with Russia; and the battle of Pultowa, which produced so great a change in the affairs of Poland, have all been detailed. When his haughty conquerour was no longer in a condition to act against him, Frederick returned to Poland, expelled his rival, and again took possession of the throne; and the senate again acknowledged him for their lawfull sovereign. A. D. 1709. For some years Frederick had to contend with the remains of the party of Stanislaus commanded by the palatine of Riow. Stanislaus himself was prevented from restoring peace to his country by a resignation of the crown, by delicacy towards the king of Sweden, which would not permit him to do it without his consent. King Frederick Augustus having imposed some taxes to answer the necessities of the state, and pay the foreign troops, the turbulent nobility of Poland took arms, and continued in them for two years. As the death of Charles the twelfth delivered Augustus from an enemy yet to be feared, it also deprived Stanislaus of his only support. When France opened an asylum to him; and Augustus concluded with Ulrica Eleonora, queen of Sweden, a treaty of peace, by which he was acknowledged lawfull king of Poland; but the title and honours of royalty were reserved to Stanislaus, his hereditary property was restored, and a revenue assigned him proportionate to his dignity, while his followers recovered all of which they had been deprived. Yet Augustus had need of all his prudence to

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restrain the factious in his kingdom. His death took place at Warsaw. On advice of this Stanislaus returned to Poland, and was again proclaimed king by the diet. But the empress of Russia sent an army, which placed the young elector of Saxony, Augustus's son, on the throne. Stanislaus was obliged to retreat, and after having supported a siege in Dantzick, was compelled to flee first into Prussia, and finally into France again. But Frederick Augustus the second, was not universally acknowledged, until a diet of pacification holden at Warsaw, in seventeen hundred and thirty-four; and even after that, so far from tranquil was his reign, that never were the diets more stormy; and though they never had more important subjects of deliberation, never were they less usefull, through the obstinacy of the members, and their precipitate separation. Their internal dissentions, however, had one good effect, in preventing the Poles from taking any part in the wars of their neighbours. The promises, the menaces, and even the money of the queen of Hungary, the king of Prussia, of the electors of Bavaria, and Saxony were in vain lavished to draw Poland into their party: the result of the assemblies holden to consider of their proposals was, to preserve their neutrality. Frederick Augustus the second, survived the period of this abridgment but a few months, dying in October seventeen hundred and sixty-three.

A. D. 1733.

History of Russia resumed.

A. D. 1702.

Much has been already stated of the war in which the czar, Peter the great, was engaged with Charles the twelfth, at the commencement of the eighteenth century, nor need the events of that already noticed be repeated. It was on the taking of Marienburg, that a young orphan female prisoner, named Catherine, was presented to the czar, who charmed with both her person and her wit, first took her for his mistress, and afterwards privately married her; having some years before repudiated his first wife, Eudocia Lapoukin, and compelled her to enter into a convent. The following campaign Peter served under his general Schemeretof, in the quality of captain of bombardeers; and in May the same year, he laid the foundation of a new capital in a little island near the mouth of the Neva, and named it Saint Petersburgh. The patriarch of Russia dying, the czar thought proper to suppress the dignity, because it curtailed his own;

but, unwilling to irritate his subjects, he declared he only suspended it until he should be at leisure to fix on a proper person to fill the office, and in the mean time he imposed the functions of it on the metropolitan of Rezan. The battle of Pultowa extended the authority of Peter from the Icy to the Caspian Sea, and promoted a treaty of alliance between him, Poland under Augustus, Prussia, and Denmark, against Sweden. The jealousy of the czar's progress conceived by the Turk, led to the war, the occurrences of which, with the manner in which the prudence of Catherine extricated her husband from a situation of extraordinary peril, have been before related. When Peter had returned to his own dominions, he A. D. 1714. proceeded to the conquest of Finland, and achieved it. While this expedition was going on, he raised at Petersburg a foundery of cannon, the admiralty, and the magazines for the port, and summoned thither the senate, which he had the year before established at Moscow. Two years after this, the czar resolved on another tour in Europe, with a view of thoroughly informing himself in the particular interests of the courts, and legislation of the states. He took with him the czarina, who after passing through the north of Germany and Denmark, was, in going towards Holland, at Wesel, delivered of a son, which lived but one day. Herself, Peter left at Amsterdam, while he went into France, whence he returned by Liege; and having rejoined his czarina, passed through Prussia to his own dominions, and arrived at Petersburgh after an absence of more than a year and a half. The czar's return was quickly followed by proceedings against his son Alexis, whom his first czarina had borne him. This prince, by a superstitious attachment to those customs from which his father had endeavoured to wean the Russians, by his indolence and voluptuousness, had drawn on himself the displeasure of the czar, and consequently fled from the court; but was drawn back by a solemn promise of pardon. Yet, as soon as he was in his power, Peter in full council disinherited him, by a declaration which he made him sign. The czar then drew from him the names of those from whom he had received encouragement, and though no plot appeared, the greater part of those he named were condemned to death, and his mother Eudokia, who had left the

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convent in expectation of the czar's sinking under his infirmities, was banished to that of Ladoga, and ordered to be beaten by two of the nuns. After which a decree for the death of Alexis himself, was signed by a great number of military officers and ministers, and was executed the next day. This prince left a son and daughter. The scheme of an alliance between Peter and Charles being defeated by the death of the last, the war with Sweden was vigorously pursued

A. D. 1721. by the former, until the conclusion of the treaty of Neustadt; his acquisitions by which have been already stated. The patriarchal chair of Russia having been vacant for near twenty years, the veneration for it was sufficiently diminished to encourage the czar to declare the dignity finally abolished, and to supply it by a commission, the members of which were of his choice, removeable, and obliged to acknowledge the sovereign for supreme judge; and thus he subjected the ecclesiastical power to his own. Peter next by an ordinance

A. D. 1722. decreed, that the sovereigns of Russia should for ever have the power of nominating or changing their successors, and forced his subjects to consent to it. The same year, he made himself master of the city of Derbent, after having obtained a victory over Mahmaud, sultan of Persia. On his return from this expedition finding that his favourite Menzicof had been guilty of exactions, he caned him with his own imperial hand, and condemned him to a large fine. Peter's health continuing to fail, he had his wife Catherine, whom he had destined for his successor, solemnly crowned, but placed himself the sceptre in her hand, and the diadem on her head. The next year having got

A. D. 1725. cold, in attending a long religious ceremony on the Neva, he died of a defluxion from the chest. He left three children, all daughters: Anne married to the duke of Holstein Gottorp, Elizabeth, and Natalia who sunk under her grief for the loss of her father, and was buried with him. Menzicof having on Peter's decease convoqued a large assembly of the senate, the synod and the states, Catherine his widow was therein proclaimed empress. Having during a short reign of somewhat more than two years proved herself worthy of the throne, by following the example of her husband where it merited imitation, and avoiding it where it did not; having established the Academy of Sciences, which he had projected, and the military order of St.

Alexander Neuski, for those whose want of rank precluded them from that of St. Andrew; and made an alliance with the emperour Charles the sixth, and the king of Prussia, for supporting the claim of her son-in-law the duke of Holstein, on the duchy of Sleswick, she died of an ulcer on her lungs, in the year seventeen hundred and twenty-seven. Peter the son of the czarovitz Alexis succeeded Catherine. The czar being only twelve years old, the late czarina had appointed a council of regency to administer the government, until he was sixteen. For the chief influence in this, the duke of Holstein, and Menzicof contended, but the latter prevailing, he engrossed the whole power, securing even the czar's person, by removing him to his own palace. He had also affianced his daughter to the czar; when the young Dolgorucki, of the same age with Peter, and who had been educated with him, explained to him the insolent and perfidious conduct of his minister, and he was consequently deprived of all his employments, and banished into Siberia, where he died. Neither did Peter himself long survive him, A. D. 1730. being taken off by the small-pox, after a reign of not quite three years. By the intrigues of that Dolgorucki, who under the last reign had in favour succeeded Menzicof, Anne Ivanouna, niece of Peter the great, by his brother Ivan, and widow of Frederick William duke of Courland, was by the great council elected to succeed Peter the second. But ere they placed her on the throne, they obliged her to promise to observe certain articles on which they had agreed, to give some limits to the imperial power. Anne promised every thing, but determined to act without restraint, when once invested with the supreme authority; and by the encouragement of Osterman, the chancellor, she publickly tore the writing which she had been forced to sign. The faction of Osterman, composed of all the enemies of the Dolgoruckis, applauded this recantation, and gained the publick opinion on their side. The Dolgoruckis were arrested, and sent to different parts of Siberia, from whence the son and daughter of Menzicof, who had accompanied their father into exile, were recalled. The asylum which the city of Asoph afforded the Crim Tartars, when they made incursions into Russia, caused that city to be besieged by general Lasci; to whom it capitulated. The next A. D. 1736.

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year count Munich carried Oczakow by assault, and Choczim opened its gates to him, after he had twice defeated the Turks. Peace was then signed between the Russians and Turks, and the former agreed to the demolition of the fortifications of Asoph. Directly contrary to one article which she had promised to observe, the czarina had called from Courland her favourite Biren, and given him more power at Petersburgh than he had at Mittaw, which he abused in the most nefarious and sanguinary manner; while he exiled to Siberia more than twenty thousand objects of his dislike. This adventurer having caused himself to be elected duke of Courland, seeing his protectress attacked by a mortal disease, prevailed on her to name for her successor, prince Ivan, the son of her niece, Anne of Mecklenburgh, an infant about two months old; and to appoint himself regent during the minority: in a few days after making which will, the empress died. Biren caused the young prince to be proclaimed emperour the next day, and himself assumed the regency. But marshall Munich, who had till then favoured him, became jealous of his authority, and successfully plotted his ruin with the emperour's mother, and the duke her husband. The former then caused herself to be acknowledged grand duchess of Russia. But there was a party secretly formed in favour of Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the great, who ought, under the will of her mother, to have succeeded to the empress Anne. The grand duchess, her husband, and the prince, were in one night taken out of bed by
A. D. 1741. thirty soldiers, headed by the princess Elizabeth. This revolution set on foot by the French embassador, was accomplished without bloodshed, and even without the least opposition. Elizabeth was proclaimed empress, and the grand duchess and her husband, being first sent towards Germany, were afterwards conveyed to an island near the White Sea, and there detained until their deaths. Elizabeth on ascending the throne, cast her eyes on her nephew, Charles Peter Ulrick of Holstein, for her successor; and on his arrival at Moscow, and having professed the Greek faith, such he was declared. The next day embassadors from Sweden offered him in vain the crown of that country, though the war had broken out, and still continued between the two nations; nor was it terminated but by the treaty of

Abo. Ere this peace was concluded, a conspiracy against Elizabeth was discovered in her court, and the guilty were punished. But the empress, persuaded that the king of Prussia was the chief encourager of the conspirators, to revenge herself on him, took the part of the court of Vienna against him, and carried on a war successfully for five campaigns, when death put an end to her victories; which her successor, Peter the third, would not pursue; but, contrary to the advice of his benefactress, broke his alliance with the queen of Hungary, and made peace with the king of Prussia, sending back his prisoners loaded with presents. The first design and measures of this prince would have raised a favourable opinion of him; but his intemperance, and the offence he gave to the prejudices of his subjects, drawing on himself the contempt of all, and exciting the resentment of the military and the clergy, with the declaration which, when intoxicated, he made of his intention to have his marriage dissolved, and to disinherit his son, in favour of his own uncle, George Lewis, duke of Holstein, occasioned a conspiracy against him, headed by persons of the highest ranks, which breaking out suddenly at Petersburgh, Catherine his wife was proclaimed sole sovereign of Russia; Peter was arrested, and after having signed a resignation of the empire in terms the basest and most mean, was conducted as a prisoner to the castle of Czarcozelo; where seven days afterwards he lost his life. Catherine the second, daughter of Christian Augustus, prince of Anhalt-Zerbst, having ascended the throne of Russia, declared her only son Paul, grand duke and heir of the throne; and the coronation of this able, but very wicked empress, was the last material publick transaction that occurred in Russia previous to the peace of Paris.

A. D. 1743.

A. D. 1762.

CHAPTER XIII.

The History of Asia during the Seventh Period.

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THE history of Europe having been brought to the close proposed, that of Asia presents itself as the next to be resumed. The history of the Ottoman empire, has indeed already occasioned the notice of the most important publick occurences in a large tract of this quarter of the world, and therefore little remains to be stated of what took place during the seventh period within the limits of that empire. Yet nothing has been said, specifically, of the most important of all the events in Asia during that period, the rise of Mahomet and his imposture. This crafty, blasphemous, and shameless individual, was born at Mecca, a large and ancient city of Arabia Felix, in the year five hundred and seventy. Both his father, whose name was Abdallah, and his mother, were of the tribe of Choreish, the noblest of that part of the country. The temple of Mecca, called the caaba or square, was then under the care of the Coreishites, and the presidency of it with the government of Mecca, which went with it, descended to the grandfather of Mahomet, whose eldest son being the father of the impostor, does not add much credibility to the tale, that the last had never been taught to read. Becoming an orphan in his infancy, his father's brother Abu Taleb, received him into his house, and brought him up. Mahomet followed his relations in the wars, which arose between their tribe and the others. At twenty-five years of age he was placed with a rich widow named Cadigha, and soon gaining the confidence of his

ASIA.
English Miles
EUROPE
ARCTIC OCEAN
AFRICA
INDIAN OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
AMERICA
Sea of Kamtschatka
Sea of Okhotsk
Sea of Japan
Yellow Sea
China Sea
Bay of Bengal
Arabian Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Red Sea
Persian Gulf
Gulf of Siam
Gulf of Tonkin
Sea of Aral
Lake Baikal
Lake Aral
Lake Caspian
Hindoostan
Arabia
Tartary
Siberia
Japan Islands
Philippine Islands
Moluccas
Sumatra
Borneo
Celebes
Ceylon
Maldives
Laccadives
Andaman Islands
Kurilee Isles
Aleutian Isles
Behring's Sea
Behring's Str.
Str. of Malacca
Str. of Sunda
Str. of Babelmandel
Str. of Ormus
Str. of Shimonoseki
Str. of Matsmai
Gulf of Cambay
Gulf of Cutch
Gulf of Persia
Gulf of Suez
Gulf of Aden
Gulf of Siam
Gulf of Tonkin
Gulf of Calguran
Gulf of Manaar
Gulf of Martaban
Gulf of Pegu
Gulf of Tartary
Gulf of Kamtschatka
Gulf of Anadir
Gulf of Penjam
Gulf of Sirhind
Gulf of Kutch
Gulf of Cambay

mistress, she first committed to him the superintendence of her commerce, which was extensive, and at length married him, and brought him four sons, who all died in their infancy. He seems to have employed some years in the care of his family, and in trade. Different authors assign various periods for his first retiring to a cave in Mount Hera in Arabia, assuming the appearance of there performing religious exercises, and commencing the composition of the Coran. Many things in this strange compilation are borrowed from the Sacred Writings, and from the Jewish Talmud. He is said to have received assistance in it from Abdia, the son of Salem, a Persian Jew, and from a Nestorian monk, named Bahira by the eastern, and Sergius by the western writers. But whoever assisted him, the whole band were no great conjurers, since in a pretended revelation from heaven, specifically declared to be intended for universal reception on earth, they have inserted observances which cannot be complied with all over the globe. The first person to whom he disclosed his pretended vision of the angel Gabriel was his wife, who became his first convert. The second person who acknowledged him for a prophet, was his cousin Ali, who had lived with him, and was then only ten or eleven years old, and the third his own slave Zaid; whose faith he rewarded with his freedom. His fourth convert was Abubekir, one of the most considerable men in Mecca; whose example was soon followed by some of the principal men in the city; all before, like Mahomet himself, idolaters. In his endeavours to make proselytes, he at first met with some menacing opposition from his countrymen; but his own family supported him firmly. The chief points of religion on which he at first insisted, were, besides some moral duties, the unity of God, a resurrection, and a future state of retribution; and the profession required of those who became his disciples was this, "There is no God but one, and Mahomet is his apostle." In his powers of insinuation, he is said to have surpassed all men. At the commencement of his career he exhibited great patience under affronts, and recommended the same to his followers. He was obliging to every body: the rich he flattered; the poor he relieved with alms; and appeared a most humane character, as long as it was requisite to

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wear a mask. Ten years after his assumption of the prophetick character, having lost his wife Cadigha, he took three others. When the people of Yathreb, the place afterwards called Medina, had become disciples of Mahomet, finding his supporters so much increased, he altered his mode of address, and asserted, that he had received the divine command to propagate his doctrine by the sword, and accordingly within a year after his arrival at Medina (whither he had fled from Mecca, on information that the Coreishites had resolved to assassinate him, and where he built an house and fixed his residence for his life), he began what was called the holy war. He first instituted a brotherhood, putting his followers in pairs, and taking Ali for his own brother. The flight (hejira in Arabic) of Mahomet from Mecca is the æra from which the Mahomedans date all later occurrences. The first act of hostility which the believers in this pretended prophet committed against the idolaters was, to plunder a caravan going to Mecca; the next was an attack of the same kind, in which the Mahometans are said to have overcome a body of men much larger than their own. To arm his followers against the fear of death, he taught them the doctrine of unalterable fate, which had great effect in rendering them fearless in battle. After some more successes, subduing several Arab tribes, and making with the people of Mecca a truce for ten years; Mahomet found himself so well confirmed in his power, that he assumed the authority of a king, and was inaugurated by the chief men of his army, under a tree near Medina. The impostor had now arrived at the character of that little horn, which the prophet Daniel had in his eighth chapter foretold, should come out of one of the divisions of the kingdom of Alexander, and prove a king of fierce countenance, and destroy wonderfully, and prosper, and practise. But when he took the insignia of royalty, he still retained the character of chief pontif of his religion, and transmitted both these powers to his caliphs or successors; and in process of time the last became all the authority left to the caliphs. After this he not only met with success against the Jews, and took much wealth in their strong places, but made many important converts, and at length got possession of Mecca, whose inhabitants acknowledged and submitted to him, and

permitted him to destroy their idols. After the conquest of this city many of the tribes of Arabs came and made their submission to Mahomet, and in the ninth year of the hejira came several envoys from all parts of Arabia, to declare their readiness to profess his religion. The impostor now appeared at the head of thirty thousand men, checked the Romans and the Syrians in their purposes against him, and took several forts of the Christian Arabs, reducing the people to tribute. After receiving some more submissions in the eleventh year of the hejira, and that of the Christian æra six hundred and thirty-two, this impostor fell a victim to the vengeance of a Jewish girl, who had poisoned a shoulder of mutton, of which he partook, three years before it occasioned his death. Mahomet left but one daughter named Fatima, whom he had married to Ali. All who are thought to be descended from Mahomet by this daughter are entitled emirs or commanders, and wear a green turban. Mahomet having given no direction concerning the succession, some embarrassment arose on that point; when, to make short of the difficulty, Omar his father-in-law nominated Abubekir, who stood in the same relation to him, caliph; and immediately took the oath of fidelity to him. Ali, who alone opposed this election, was constrained by Omar to consent. Some Arab tribes that wished to shake off the yoke imposed on them, were by Caled, a most undaunted and able commander, who had been much in favour with Mahomet, soon compelled to return to their obedience. After which the same general being sent into Chaldea to conquer it from the Persians, subdued the greater part of it. From hence leading his army into Syria, he took Bosra by the treachery of the governour, and Damascus after a vigorous resistance. On the very day of the surrender it is said, the caliph A. D. 634. died. Abubekir by his will appointed Omar his successor, to whom was given the title of commander of the faithfull. This caliph did not lead his own armies, yet success attended the expeditions which he ordered. Said, one of his generals, after having made himself master of the capital of Persia, gained over Isdegerdes the king, a celebrated battle, which lasted three days, with a carnage on both sides scarcely credible. In the same year Caled gained a battle over the Greeks, which lasted an equal number of days, but with a much

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more disproportionate loss on the side of the Christians. These proved but the beginnings of Omar's triumphs. His armies conquered Jerusalem, and all Palestine, Syria, and Egypt. This successfull emperour was at last assassinated in the mosque at
A. D. 644. Medina, by a Persian slave. Othman was elected to succeed Omar. Under his reign the progress of the Mussulmen continued. Cyprus was made tributary, part of Africa reduced, and a very great booty brought from thence. Rhodes was taken from the Greeks, and the death of Isdegerdes secured to the caliph the quiet possession of the vast empire of Persia, which had been conquered piecemeal. But while one of his generals was preparing to improve a naval victory he had gained over the Greek emperour, Othman was slain in his
A. D. 656. palace at Medina, in a sedition his severity had provoked. On the day of Othman's death, the people proclaimed caliph Ali, the son-in-law of Mahomet. Ayesha the impostor's widow, opposed this election; but the army which her supporters raised, was defeated by Ali, and she herself taken prisoner. Another insurrection took place in Syria, which led to the schism which still subsists among the Mahometans; and with a view of ending which, a fanatick assassinated Ali in a mosque. This caliph left two sons, Hasan who succeeded him, and Hussein: the former filled the throne but six months. Unable to bear either the intractable ferocity of his subjects, or the war which Maawiyah declared against him, he solemnly abdicated the throne to his rival; and eight years after was poisoned by one of his wives, leaving behind him an amiable character for clemency. After Hasan's abdication, Moawiyah the son of Abu Soffian, and great-grandson of Ommiah, of the tribe of
A. D. 661. Choreish, was acknowledged caliph by all the Mussulmen, for great had been his previous services. He pushed forward the Mahometan conquests in Africa, but a native prince deprived him of several. By his fleet he fruitlessly attacked Constantinople for seven successive years; but at length concluded with the emperour a truce for thirty years. Moawiyah died at Damascus; whither he had removed the seat of his empire; and he made the dignity of caliph, which had hitherto been elective, hereditary, associating in it his son Yesid, who
A. D. 680, succeeded him. Hussein the son of Ali disputed the throne, but a

battle in which Hussein fell decided the contest. No sooner was Hussein destroyed, than another rival Abdallah, the son of Zobeis, took the title of caliph at Medina; but the citizens who supported him, were by Yesid's forces put to the sword, and their city plundered for three days. Mecca, which had also declared for Abdallah, would have suffered the same, but was preserved by the death of Yesid, whose intemperance, irreligion, and cruelty had made A. D. 683. him odious to his subjects. In his reign the Saracens subdued Bukaria and Chowaresm. But Persia was taken from them by an adventurer named Moctar. Yesid was succeeded by his son Moawijah the second, who after six weeks abdicated the throne from a scruple. After some debates raised by the partisans of A. D. 684. Abdallah, the Ommiades chose for Caliph one of their own family named Merwan, but he lived to enjoy his dignity but one year, and was succeeded by his eldest son Abdolmeleck. Having renewed the peace with the Greeks by abandoning all the conquests in Africa, he soon changed his mind, and sent an army into Africa, which after some success, was lost with its commander. But from this two other wars diverted his attention, one on the side of Persia against Moctar, over whom he triumphed; the other in Arabia, against Abdallah, who fell in defending Mecca. A new expedition was then ordered into Africa; which entirely expelled or subdued the Christians of that region. The death of Abdolmeleck taking place at Damascus, his eldest son Walid ascended the throne. The exploits of his generals signalized his reign. They penetrated into Transoxana, and possessed themselves of its capital Samarcand; and they finished the conquest of Africa. And the Mahometan governour of this region sending his lieutenant with an army into Spain, that rich and extensive country became in fifteen months the prey of the Saracens. About two years after this important conquest, death put an end to the triumphs of Walid. Solyman, a brother of Walid, succeeded to A. D. 715. the caliphate, but held it little more than two years and a half; when Omar the second, the son of Abdolaziz whom his cozen Solyman designed should succeed him, did so in fact by the choice of the nation. But in less than three years, he was thrown into A. D. 717. prison by the Ommiades, because he prohibited as unjust the solemn

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curses which his predecessors had ordered to be pronounced against the memory of Ali. By the will of Solyman, his brother Yesid the second succeeded Omar. This proved an idle and voluptuous
A. D. 720. prince, and ere he had reigned quite four years, died of grief for the
A. D. 724. loss of his favourite wife. Another of the sons of Abdolmeleck, named Hasham, succeeded him, and reigned in tranquillity, but slightly
A. D. 743. interrupted for about nineteen years. Having chosen for his successor in preference to his children a nephew, he was succeeded by him under the name of Walid the second. The debauched life of this caliph soon excited discontent, when his cozen Yesid, son of Walid the first, putting himself at the head of a party, attacked his
A. D. 744. palace, and having murdered him mounted his throne. Though by the prudence of his measures this caliph quieted several insurrections, his reign endured but about five months, being cut off by the plague in the same year in which he began to rule. The reign of his brother Ibrahim, who succeeded, was still more brief; since at the end of two months he was dethroned by Merwan, great-grandson of Merwan the first; whose reign however was disturbed by continual revolts, which ended in the ruin of him and his family. For after two years a considerable party acknowledged Ibrahim, of the house
A. D. 746. of the Abassides, for the chief of the Mahometan religion; who having undertaken the pilgrimage to Mecca, fell into the hands of the partisans of Merwan, and was poisoned, after having marked for his successor his brother, Aboul Abbas. When Abdallah, their uncle, a celebrated commander, putting himself at the head of the troops of the last,
A. D. 750. obliged Merwan to flee into Egypt, where he was put to death, and in him finished the dynasty of the Ommiades; which was succeeded by that of the Abassides. The first of this, the above-named Aboul Abbas was proclaimed caliph, as soon as advice arrived of the death of Merwan. While he and the Ommiades were contending for the command of the Mahometans, the emperour Constantine Copronymus made several conquests from them, and when the caliph was preparing to revenge himself, he was taken off by the small-pox. A few days after his decease Abou Giafar, his brother, surnamed
A. D. 754. Almanzor or the victorious, was proclaimed caliph at Cufah, while his uncle Abdallah assumed the same title at Damascus. Between

these rivals a war ensued, in which the last was vanquished. Equally successfull was Almanzor against the Ommiades; the remains of which family he compelled to retire into Africa, and from thence they passed into Spain. Almanzor built the city of Bagdad, to which he gave the title of the Abode of Peace, and made it the established residence of the caliphs. And from this time of establishing a more fixed seat of their government, it should be remarked, the destructive excursions of the Saracens, who had for a century and a half, like flights of locusts, ravaged so large a tract of the earth, ceased; and their swarms no more issued from their native deserts, when the judgments to which they had been appointed were executed.* To Almanzor succeeded his son, Mahomet Mahadi, whose attacks on the Greek empire by two of his sons, have been already mentioned. In these one of them was slain: the other and the eldest, Musa-Al-Nadi was on the death of his father proclaimed Caliph, but in about two years was poisoned by his mother; which prevented him from committing the same crime against his brother Haroun, whom he wished to destroy to secure the throne to his own son. Haroun, however, succeeded him unopposed, and proved a prince of a wonderfull mixture of bad and good qualities. Perfidious, capricious, and ungratefull, he sacrificed gratitude, humanity, and justice, to his mistrust, and the whims of his taste; while brave, magnificent, and liberal, he spread terrour among his enemies, and benefits among his people. He shewed himself a patron of learning, by the translations he caused to be made of the best Greek works into the Arabick language; and he forced the Greek emperour to pay him an annual tribute. In his reign, it is said, the Arabians invented Algebra. He was succeeded in the caliphate, after a reign of twenty-two years and a half, by his eldest son Amin. Resigning himself to his pleasures, this prince left the government to his minister, by whose injustice the caliph's brother, Mamon, being driven to revolt, Bagdad was besieged and taken, and Amin slain in his flight; after which Mamon was universally acknowledged as caliph. In his reign Taher, his successfull general,

A. D. 762.

A. D. 775.

A. D. 784.

A. D. 786.

A. D. 809.

A. D. 813.

* See Rev. ix. 1—11.

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having obtained the government of Khorasan, converted it into a sovereignty, which he transmitted to his descendants. Still this has been considered as the most brilliant period of the history of the
A. D. 820. Arabians, for Mamon, like his father, gave great encouragement to literature, enlightened his people, and made them happy by his virtues, and drew to his court learned men from all countries, receiving with little difference Christians and Mahometans. He founded academies, colleges, and hospitals, and himself cultivated
A. D. 833. the sciences. This caliph having reigned almost twenty years, died near Tarsus in Cilicia. Mamon was succeeded by his brother Motassem. He was peacefully disposed, but the cruelties which the emperour Theophilus had perpetrated in the Mahometan territories excited his vengeance. Having reigned more than eight years, he
A. D. 842. died at the age of forty-nine. In his reign the Turks began to enter into the service of the caliphs. Having purchased in Turkestan a great number of slaves, of which he formed a fine military body, these afterwards rose against their masters. Motassem's son Watek Billah was, on his father's death, proclaimed caliph, and after a reign in which by treading in the steps of his father he gained the love of his subjects, but manifested his bigotry by endeavouring to make
A. D. 847. converts by torture, he died of a dropsy, brought on by his incontinence and gluttony. A brother of his, named Mothavakel, succeeded him in his throne. Inimical to the Christians, he made them, as well as the Jews, wear large girdles of leather, to distinguish them from the Mahometans. Equally hostile to the family of Ali, he caused the tombs of that caliph and his son Hussein, to be demolished; irritated by which, their party excited against him his son Montasser,
A. D. 861. who caused him to be assassinated. The crime he had committed raised Montasser to his father's throne; but the remorse arising from it so preyed on his spirits, that in six months it brought him to his grave. He was succeeded by Mostain Billah, a grandson of Motassem; who was for his elevation indebted to the Turks, who
A. D. 862. then began to rule in the empire. Having three years afterwards put to death Bahder, the most turbulent of their leaders, the Turks irritated by that execution, deposed him, and drawing from prison Motaz, the son of Mothavakel, proclaimed him caliph. When

Mostain, deserted by his followers, resigned, and was soon after beheaded. Motaz was then universally acknowledged. The Turkish soldiers mutinied during his reign, and massacred one of their chiefs. The next year the caliph being informed, that their commander meant to attempt his life, prevented him by cutting off his head: on which the Turks forced the palace, and after committing other outrages, beat the caliph, and obliged him to resign, and his death followed his abdication. After the dethronement of Motaz, Mothadi Billah, the son of Billah, was proclaimed caliph. Zealous for good order, he undertook to reform the states, but the Turks assassinated him. For the murdered prince they substituted a son of the caliph, Motavakel, named Mothamed; a prince who sacrificed every thing to his pleasures, and having appointed Mouaffec his brother, for his successor, he left the care of the state to him; who for twenty years signalized himself by military exploits; having repressed the insolence of the Turks, and attached them to himself. During this reign, Achmet, governour of Egypt, there founded the dynasty of the Tholonides. Mothamed died in consequence of his debauched life, having the year before lost his intended successor Mouaffec, who transferred his claim to the throne to his own son Mothaded; and this prince reigned nine years and a half, by wholesome severity, re-establishing the military discipline, which had been much relaxed. On his decease, his son Moktafi was proclaimed caliph. Being at open war with the Greek empire, part of his forces made themselves masters of the city of Thessalonica. After which conquest the caliph sent an army into Egypt against sultan Haroun, grandson of Achmet mentioned above. After losing several battles, the sultan was assassinated by his uncle; and in him ended the dynasty of the Tholonides. The caliph himself died after a reign of six years. Moctader his son, or his brother, succeeded him; but being only thirteen years old, the oppressive conduct of his vizier rendered him odious, and the soldiery slew the minister, and deposed the caliph. But the last was quickly restored, but deposed again twenty-one years afterwards; yet in three days he was again re-established. But in three years, one of his generals, who had preserved Egypt for him, offended at the little notice taken of his services, and at the effeminacy

A. D. 866.

A. D. 869.

A. D. 870.

A. D. 892.

A. D. 902.

A. D. 908.

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of Moktader, determined to depose him, and in a battle which ensued the caliph was slain, and Kaher, the third son, or the grandson of Mothaded, was placed on the throne. This wretch's avarice
A. D. 932. induced him to perpetrate such cruelties, that the man who raised him, entered into a conspiracy to dethrone him; but being detected, he and some of his accomplices suffered death. The caliph however was not secure; a party surprised him in his palace, put out his eyes,
A. D. 934. deposed him, and threw him into prison, and when under his successor he recovered his liberty, he was obliged to support himself by begging; which he did at the door of the great mosque. Rhadi the son of Moktader was next proclaimed caliph. His love of ease induced him to institute the high office of Emir-al-Omra, which almost annihilated the temporal power of the caliphs; and the empire became so dismembered, that except at Bagdad and in some neighbouring provinces, there remained to the caliph solely a shadow of authority, by being named in the publick prayers, and giving to the sultans of the various independent governments raised, the inves-
A. D. 940. titure of their sovereignties. Rhadi died in the seventh year of his reign, a Turk named Jahkem then holding the dignity of Emir-al-Omra. A brother of the late caliph, named Ibrahim, then ascended the throne, and took the name of Motaki. So great was the power of the Turks now become, that after some struggle with them, this caliph was deposed by their general, who ordered his eyes to be put
A. D. 944. out, and proclaimed for his successor a son of Moctafi, who assumed the name of Mostakfi. His fate was similar to that of his predecessor,
A. D. 946. and he was succeeded by a cozen named Mothi; who, nominally caliph and attacked by a paralysis, after twenty-eight years abdicated
A. D. 974. the throne, and was succeeded by his son Thay, who was obliged also to resign his nominal dignity by his Emir-al-Omra, and give way to Kader, a grandson of Moktader; who reigned forty years, and
A. D. 991. manifested an inclination to recover some of the authority of which his predecessors had been deprived; but even in Bagdad he was not perfectly master. In his days the dynasty of the Gaznevides was established in Khorasan; Mahmoud Gasni making himself sovereign of that country, whence he afterwards extended his
A. D. 1031. conquests into Persia and India. Kader was succeeded by his son

Kaïem. In the year a thousand and thirty-five, Togrul Beg and Daoud not only established themselves in Khorasan, notwithstanding all the opposition made by sultan Masoud, the son of Mahmoud, but extended their power into the Persian Irak. This dynasty raised itself on the ruins of that of the Bouhides, which Togrul Beg destroyed by the defeat and imprisonment of Malek Raim, general of the caliph's troops. Kaïem himself became the slave of the conquerour; who obliged him to crown him sultan of Bagdad, and after some further revolutions, married his daughter. Among the learned men in this caliph's reign was the celebrated physician Avicenna. Kaïem was succeeded in the caliphate by his grandson A. D. 1075. Moctadi, but like him in dependence on the Turks. Togrul Beg being on his decease succeeded by his nephew Alp Arslan, and he by his son Malek Schah Dgelaleddin, a lieutenant of this last took Damascus, lower Syria, and Palestine, from the caliph of Egypt. Malek Schah built a magnificent college at Bagdad, and there collected the most celebrated learned men of Arabia. His successor was his son Barkiaroc, who imitated not his conduct. Under the reign of the caliph Moctadi sprang up the sect of the Bathenians, better known under the denomination of the Assassins, founded by Nassan Sabah. They formed in the mountains of Proper Persia a dynasty which subsisted an hundred and seventeen years. Their chief has been commonly called the Old Man of the Mountain. Mostadher his son, was placed on the throne on the death of Moctadi: he took no part in the revolutions by which the Arabian A. D. 1094. empire was then agitated. The crusaders obtained a complete victory over the troops of Barkiaroc near Antioch. On the decease of Barkiaroc, his brother Mahomet took from his son, Malek Schah the second, both his estates and his dignity. The caliph was succeeded by his eldest son Mostarched, who took the name of Abu A. D. 1118. Mansor, but met with opposition from his own brother Hassan, whom however he subdued, but without destroying. After experiencing some other opposition, this caliph was taken prisoner in a battle against the sultan of Irak, whom he had appointed his Emir-al-Omra, and assassinated some days after. His son Rasched A. D. 1138. succeeded him, and was deposed in about two years, by Masoud

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sultan of Bagdad. During his reign arose the dynasty of the Gaurides, upon the ruins of that of the Gaznevides. Its name was derived from the province of Gaur in Hindostan. Rasched was succeeded by his nephew Moctafi, who had no share in the government as long as Masoud lived, but after his death he made use of his own authority, and governed immediately both his army and his people.

A. D. 1160. His son too, Mostandged succeeded him, who governed also by himself, and that wisely; when dangerously ill his death was

A. D. 1170. accelerated by the treason of his vizier, and the prefect of his palace. The throne was next filled by Mosthadi, the son of Mostandged,

A. D. 1180. whose reign passed in inaction, and who was succeeded by his own son Nasser. His caliphate was rendered remarkable only by the great progress of Saladin in Egypt and in Syria. After a reign of

A. D. 1225. forty-five years, he was succeeded in the throne by his son Daher; who re-established the police of Bagdad, and was projecting embel-

A. D. 1226. lishments for that city, when death carried him off. But his son and successor Mostanser, ornamented the city with a new bridge, and founded a magnificent college named from him. The laws, arts, and sciences flourished in his reign. He repelled the Tartars, who advanced to the gates of Bagdad. But the Moguls menaced him more heavily. After a reign of seventeen years, his people justly

A. D. 1243. lamented the death of this prince, and he was succeeded by his son Mostazem, whose indolence and debauchery rendered him odious to his subjects, and caused the ruin of his house. In his days the Tartars began to penetrate into southern Asia. Houlagou, whom Mostazem had offended, having destroyed the Assassins, laid siege to Bagdad, and Mostazem, betrayed by his subjects, surrendered himself to him; and the citizens opening their gates, Bagdad was pillaged for seven days, and then delivered to the flames. The caliph was afterwards cruelly put to death; and thus finished both the dynasty of the Abassides and

A. D. 1258. the caliphate of Bagdad. As the dominions of the conquerour of Bagdad extended much to the east and north of those of the Ottoman empire, ere the history of them is continued, what was passing more to the west and south during the latter part of the existence of the caliphate of Bagdad must be noticed. In the year a thousand and seventy-four, Solyman passed into Asia-Minor, at the

head of an army of Turks, and pushed his conquests as far as Nice, where he established his residence; all the rest of Asia Minor afterwards fell under his power except Trébizónd, and some other cities. In a thousand and eighty-five, Solyman led his army into Syria, where he took from the Greeks Antioch, Laodicæa, and some other places. But in proceeding to besiege Aleppo being defeated by the brother of the sultan of Persia, he killed himself in his retreat. His death was followed by seven years of anarchy in the provinces he had conquered, at the close of which Rilidge Arslan, the son of Solyman, was placed on the thone of Iconium: a name given to that sultany, because the sovereigns of it had chosen the capital of Lycaonia so called for that of their estates. Having made various conquests both in the isles of the Archipelago, and on the continent, he received so undauntedly the first division of Franks, who under the Cross, endeavoured to open through his dominions a way to the holy land, that he accomplished their destruction; and though by a succeeding body he was repeatedly defeated, he revenged these losses by destroying three armies of crusaders. This brave sultan at length fell in a battle against the sultan of Edessa, and was succeeded by his eldest son Saisan; whose reign proved only a chain of misfortunes, and ended in being betrayed into the hands of his brother Masoud, and by him put to death. After Masoud had maintained a long war with the Greek emperour, a solid peace was made between them, and they united to destroy two armies of crusaders. This sultan died on his return from an expedition against the Christians in Syria. Rilidge Arslan his son, succeeded to his throne, and sat on it about thirty-seven years; of which the last were the most unhappy, as he became the puppet of his own children, who drove him to a wandering life, and let him want for every thing. His son Gaiatheddin-Raikosrou, maintained himself after his father's death in Iconium, of which he had made himself master in the last years of his life. Having lost and again recovered this city, he at length fell in battle against Theodore Lascaris. His son and successor Azzeddin-Raikaous reigned but nine years, and was succeeded on his decease by his brother Alaeddin-Raihobad; who was the greatest prince of the family. He extended the bounds of

A. D. 1092.

A. D. 1101.

A. D. 1107.

A. D. 1117.

A. D. 1155.

A. D. 1192.

A. D. 1210.

A. D. 1219.

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his monarchy by conquests in Georgia, Armenia, Mesapotamia; published wise laws, and took care that they should be observed. On his death his son Gaiatheddin-Rai-Kosrou the second inherited his

A. D. 1237. dominions; but in a few years time was reduced to tribute by the Moguls, a disgrace which he survived but a very short time; when

A. D. 1244. he was succeeded by his son Azzeddin Raikaous the second, who fell entirely into the hands of the Moguls; by whom were put to death his two successors, and under the third perished finally the sultany of Iconium.

Aleppo and Damascus.

Cotemporary for much the greater part of its duration, with the sultany of Iconium, were those of Aleppo and Damascus. The founder of these was Toutousch or Tausch, the brother of Malek Schah sultan of Persia, and son of Alp Arslan, who possessed himself

A. D. 1078 to 1094. first of Damascus, and all the estates of its emir, and afterwards of Aleppo and all the country that then depended on it; and on his decease his son Redouan being acknowledged for his successor, was forced to part with Damascus by his brother Dekah, who assumed the title of its sultan. For more than a century and a half these two sultanies went through a course of revolutions and of wars with the crusaders, and at length they both fell under the power of the celebrated Saladin, sultan of Egypt, and on his descendants poured

A. D. 1260. the mighty power of the Moguls, by whom both these sultanies were finally annihilated.

Persia.

From the period at which the history of this country was last suspended, to that of its subjugation by the Saracens, passed only the brief interval of forty-eight years. Chosroes the second, who had been re-established on his throne, as has been already noticed, by the emperour Mauritius, having returned the kindness of his benefactor by a bloody war on his dominions, in which he was successfull for eighteen years, at length felt the powerfull hand of divine justice, lost

A. D. 628. in three campaigns all that he had conquered from the Romans, who under the emperour Heraclius, penetrated into the heart of Persia, and in addition to this, was seized by his eldest son Siroes, irritated at his having appointed his younger son Medarses for his successor. The impious prince after having caused the throats of seventeen of his brothers to be cut in their father's sight, shut him up in a prison,

whither he every day sent satraps by turns, to insult him, and spit in his face. To these outrages torture was added, by pricking him with arrows to make him die by degrees: and thus he ended his days in suffering and despair. The usurper of his throne died when he had filled it but ten months; during which he made a firm peace with the Romans. Siroes on his decease was succeeded by his son, Ardschir, whom Sar- A. D. 629.
bazas the general of the Persians assassinated at the end of six months, and put himself in his place, but was killed in the second month of his usurpation. Tourandokht, the daughter of Chosroes, was elected queen in failure of heirs male. It is asserted, that she was poisoned in about sixteen months. After her five princes succeeded so rapidly, that they did no more than appear on the throne. At length a son of Sarbazas was proclaimed king, by the name of Isdegerdes the A. D. 632.
third. In the year subsequent to his accession, Caled, the general of caliph Abubekir, took from him part of Irak, and of Chaldæa, and in four years more another Arabian commander, after having made himself master of Madain, the then capital of Persia, defeated Isdegerdes in a pitched battle. This misfortune drew after it the loss of all his dominions except Segesthan. Fifteen years after which Isdegerdes was slain by some rebells, and left a son named Phirouz, A. D. 652.
who, with his sister, went as far as China to save himself. Persia then became the possession of the caliphs. It was afterwards divided among different Arabian princes, or strangers, who erected various provinces in it into as many sovereignties, which state lasted until the dynasty of the Schah Sophys, who re-united all Persia under a monarch. The Moguls, who put an end to the empire of the caliphs in Persia, as has been above stated, were originally a nation dwelling in Turquestan, the ancient Transoxana, at present inhabited by the Usbeck Tartars, and having Samarcand for its capital. A khan of this horde, named Yesoukai Bahadour, began to make himself remarkable towards the middle of the twelfth century. He made conquests of which we have not the detail. But his fame was eclipsed by that of his son and successor Temoudgin, surnamed Genghiz Khan. On his succession to his father's dignity, which occurred when he was only thirteen years old, several hordes which had submitted to Yesoukai, revolted. Against these, he marched at

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the head of those which remained faithfull, manifested extraordinary valour, but was obliged to return unsuccessfull. He then continued in quiet some years, but having arrived at a maturer age, he again assembled his faithfull subjects, again attacked the revolters, vanquished them, and with ferocious cruelty, had their chiefs thrown into seventy cauldrons of boiling water. Similar exploits in a short time rendered his name celebrated and terrible. After having subdued almost all the hordes of northern Tartars, Genghiz Khan
A. D. 1211. turned his arms against the Niu-tche Tartars, who were masters of eastern Tartary, and the northern provinces of China. The Moguls themselves had been in subjection to them. Genghiz Khan triumphed wherever he appeared; Yen-king, the capital of that empire, opened its gates to his general after a long siege. Great insurrections recalled Genhiz Khan into Tartary. But there he also
A. D. 1218. was conquerour on every side. After which he quitted that vast region, to make the conquest of western Asia. Kharism, Aderbijiana, Chorasan, the country of Gazna, Transoxana, the Persian Irak, and the Ripjack, were in six years reduced by him. Two years after this, he passed into the kingdom of Tangut. Some victories made him entirely master of that country. In the mean time, his generals continuing the war against the Niu-tche Tartars, he went to rejoin them; and was on the point of completing the ruin of that powerfull
A. D. 1227. monarchy, when he was carried off by sickness. Genghiz Khan seems to have been merely a conquerour. He reigned over ruins, and built or repaired scarcely any thing. Bokhara is the only city he founded. He left the Moguls as hostile to the arts and sciences as he found them. Yet he gave them some laws of military discipline, and some for civil life, which he made them observe rigorously, but did not thereby soften the ferocity of their manners. It is not known of what religion this hero was, or even whether of any. Of five hundred wives which he had, he left nine sons, the third of whom, Octaï, was declared by his father his successor. By his forces an end was put to the empire of the Niu-tche in China; and being thus master of the greater part of Asia, he turned his arms
A. D. 1235. towards Europe, sent his son Gaiouk, with three of his nephews, into the countries situated beyond the Caspian Sea. They penetrated

into Russia, from thence into Poland, and afterwards into Hungary, committing most cruel and utter desolation wherever they went: and in the mean time, other bodies of these barbarians, poured into Syria, and the neighbouring countries. While Oktaï was pursuing his conquests in China, with no less cruelty, death surprised him. On his deathbed he appointed his grandson, Schiramoun, to succeed him. A. D. 1241. But on his decease, his wife, Tourakina Khatoun, seized the reins of government, under the title of regent, intending to place the crown on the head of her son Gaiouk, then in Hungary. She succeeded, and on his return held a great assembly, in which he was acknowledged his father's successor, in prejudice of Schiramoun. A. D. 1246. Death gave not the new khan leisure to execute the great projects which he had formed on Europe. He died in his forty-third A. D. 1249. year. Gaiouk's widow, Ogoulganmsich, assumed the government after her husband's death, until the great men of the nation elected a new sovereign. She then resigned it to Mangou-Khan, a nephew of A. D. 1251. Oktaï. By his general Holitai whom he sent to subdue Thibet, that whole country was laid desolate, and its towns and castles levied with the ground. Mangou, on the solicitation of the king of Armenia, determined to embrace Christianity,* and unite his forces with those of the Christians, for the expulsion of the Mahometans from the holy land. For the accomplishment of this, Houlagou, his brother, marched with a powerfull army, but with an order to begin his operations with destroying the Bathenians, or Assassins of Persia, and having made himself master of all his country, their last king A. D. 1256.

* Few readers but will be amused with the following anecdote of two friars, sent by St. Lewis, to ask permission of Mangou, to preach what they called the Gospel, in his dominions. These missionaries proposing to the khan to become a Christian, shewed him a Cross, and an image of the Virgin, throwing incense on them, in his presence. They themselves were invested with handsome copes, and sang *Salve Regina*. The Tartarian monarch, for want of a good interpreter, took all this for homage done to himself, in the name and behalf of St. Lewis; seemed well pleased, made the embassadors drink of the strong drink of the country, and sent them back with presents, and a letter to St. Lewis, in which he took the title of *The Son of God, and of the Sovereign of all the Lords of the Earth*, and commanded him to conform himself exactly to the faith and laws of the great Genghiz Khan, if he would obtain his friendship, and merit his kindness.

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surrendered himself to him. After this Hulagou proceeded to Bagdad, and put an end to the empire of the caliphs, as has been already related. He then carried the war into Syria, became master of Asia-Minor, even to the Strait of Constantinople. His general, Baijou Novain, disposed at his pleasure of the throne of Iconium; and all those countries were ravaged. To complete the subjection of Asia, the Moguls wanted only the destruction of the dynasty of the Songs, who reigned in the southern part of China, but in endeavouring to accomplish this, Mangou was slain in an assault; when the great men of the Moguls returned to Tartary, where their choice of a new khan fell on Rublaï, a brother of the deceased khan. This prince resigned to Houlagou, the western parts of his empire, of which the last continued in possession, with the exception of the great part of the cities of Syria, which Bibars, sultan of Egypt, took from him. When preparing to march against this enemy, Houlagou died. His son and successor, Abaka-Khan, almost annihilated the empire of the Turks in Asia; but he was not equally successfull against the Saracens; Bibars continued his progress in Syria. Abaka sent embassadors to the council of Lyons, to make a treaty of alliance with the pope and Christian princes; and having celebrated, at Hamadan, Easter with the Christians; he was quickly after poisoned, as was suspected, by his visir. Nikoudar, the brother of Abaka, succeeded him, though the latter left two sons. He had when young, been baptized by the name of Nicolas; but scarcely was he on the throne, when he became a Mahometan, and took the name of Ahmed-Khan. From that time he persecuted the Christians, banishing them, and destroying their churches. His nephew, Argoun, though not a Christian, revolted against him; but being defeated fell into the hands of his uncle. An emir, however, who was commanded to put him to death, from hatred to the khan, whose effeminate life and debaucheries raised his subjects against him, set him at liberty. When Argoun, at the head of a band of determined soldiers attacked the khan, and afterwards getting him into his hands, delivered him to his mother-in-law; who had him put to death. Argoun, the son of Abaka-Khan, was proclaimed on the death of Ahmed. He appointed Bogha, the emir who had delivered

A. D. 1259.

A. D. 1265.

A. D. 1282.

A. D. 1284.

him, his vizir, but afterwards was, by his treasonable practices, induced to put him to death. When a Jewish physician became his favourite; by whose advice, Mahometans were excluded from all offices of justice and finance; by which the Christians gained. Argoun even made an alliance with the Franks, and proposed to put them in possession of the holy land. But while preparing for this, sickness carried him to his grave. His brother, Kandgiatou, was A. D. 1290. elected to succeed him. His debaucheries, perfidy, and impiety, made him hated by his subjects, and despised by strangers. After a very few years, at the request of the great men, Baidou his cozen, revolted against him, defeated, took him, and had him strangled. A. D. 1294. Baidou himself, a grandson of Houlagou, took possession of the throne. But Casan, the son of Argoun Khan, declaring war against him, a battle was fought, in which Baidou was, by the treachery of his own followers, entirely defeated, and afterwards arrested, and put to death, by order of the conquerour, after a reign of eight months. A. D. 1295. Casan or Gasan possessed himself of the throne now left vacant. Though to secure it, he had become a Mahometan, he always preserved a prepossession for the Christians. He made an irruption into Syria, with the kings of Armenia, and Georgia; and maintained with various success, a war against the sultan of Egypt. He was fond of learning, and the arts; and died in the ninth year of his A. D. 1304. reign. Aldgiaptou, the brother of Casan, succeeded him. He too on his accession became a Mahometan, yet equally opposed the Saracens. He passed a reign, in general, tranquil and flourishing, and died at thirty-six years of age. His son Abousaïd, then only A. D. 1317. twelve years old, succeeded him. Frequent revolts of the emirs disturbed his reign; and he died when he was only thirty years old; A. D. 1335. being in some measure, the last Khan of Persia, of the race of Genghiz. After his death, the provinces were taken away by the great men, and his successors remained without authority. This confusion lasted for upwards of fifty years, when Timur-Beg, or Tamerlane, overturned all the rising monarchies, and changed the appearance of the Persian empire. This famous conquerour was born in the capital of a little state which formed part of the ancient Sogdiana, of which his father was emir. On the death of the latter, A. D. 1360.

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Timur-Beg succeeded him; and the proofs he gave of his valour, induced the emirs of Zagaai, to elect him to fill the imperial throne of that country. Almost the whole course of his reign was a chain
A. D. 1370. of victories and conquests. Having conquered the countries to the north-east of it, and been defeated only in Syria, he conquered
A. D. 1387. Turkestan in some months, and entered Persia the same year, when the inhabitants of Ispahan first opened their gates to him, but afterwards revolted, and sustaining a siege, was taken by assault, and seventy thousand of its inhabitants put to death. Schiraz received
A. D. 1393. him as soon as he appeared. Some years after he carried the war to the borders of the Tigris, and the Euphrates; and five years later into Hindostan, where he took the city of Delhi, carrying rapine and
A. D. 1400. desolation even to the Ganges; and afterwards marched back to Samarcand. The next year urged by the Greek emperour, he made an irruption into the territories of the Ottomans, took the city of Sebaste, returned into Syria, and took the greater part of the places in possession of the sultan of Egypt, and quitting that country to complete the conquest of Babylonian Irak, he took Bagdad, which was entirely destroyed; but the cities of that country are easily rebuilt of sun-dried bricks. Thence Tamerlane returned into Asia-Minor, and gained a celebrated victory near Ancyra, over the
A. D. 1402. Ottoman emperour, Bajazet; in which this last was taken prisoner, together with his son Musa; but experienced very generous treatment from Tamerlane, who, had he not died, would have given his liberty. The conquest of Anatolia following this victory, Tamerlane returned to Samarcand. From thence, after some stay, he departed for the conquest of China, but death surprised him in Turkestan, at the age of seventy-one.

A. D. 1405.

Rise of the Ottoman Empire.

While the events which have now been related in the history of Asia, were passing, a new power raised itself on the ruins of the sultany of Iconium. Othman, or Ottoman, the son of Ortogrul, whose father Soliman Schah, had migrated with his three sons, from Chorasan, to avoid the arms of Genghiz Khan, and was drowned in passing the Euphrates, was on the death of his own father, whom Gaiatheddin the last sultan of Iconium, had received into his dominions, and with whose services against his enemies, he was highly

pleased, declared by Gaitheddin prince of the Turks, and entitled Othman-Beg. The sultan too, fearing he might join the Tartars, who then vexed his provinces by their incursions, to afford him employment permitted him to carry his arms towards the west of Asia-Minor. On this side he took several cities, and even whole provinces from the Greek emperour; and after the death of Gaitheddin, he took Iconium from the Tartars, and crowned his conquests with that of Prusa in Bithynia, which his son Orkan, gained after a long siege. In the year of this acquisition Othman died. Rapid as had been his success, he saw rise by the side of him a power which counterbalanced his own, that of Raraman, chief of the Turcomans, who possessed himself of Cappadocia, and other adjoining countries; where he formed a considerable kingdom, that subsisted for three centuries. Orkan, the son of Othman succeeded him, assumed the name of sultan, and established his residence at Prusa. He considerably enlarged the bounds of the state which his father had left him; and his son Solyman passing the Hellespont, took Gallipoli, the key of Europe, and penetrated far into Thrace. The loss of this son, killed by a fall from his horse, caused the death of Orkan himself. Though roguery and violence formed the policy of Orkan, he introduced some degree of civil order into his dominions, appointing a cadi or judge in every city. To his soldiers too, who had been accustomed to support themselves by pillage, he gave daily pay, and to every military body he gave an uniform. He founded hospitals, built mosques, favoured learning, and erected colleges, for the cultivation of it. To him is to be ascribed the institution of the celebrated militia of the janizaries, which his son Amurath only completed. This prince succeeded to his father's throne, and sent his grand vizir to complete the reduction of Thrace; who by a stratagem took, after a vigourous resistance, Adrianople, and abandoned it to plunder. Near thirty years after which, Amurath himself passing over into Europe, put to flight a combined army of Christians, and took prisoner the king of Servia; but visiting the field of battle after the action, was there slain by a dying soldier. To attach his own troops to him, this sultan distributed among the principal of them the lands he conquered,

A. D. 1299.

A. D. 1336.

A. D. 1360.

A. D. 1389.

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which fiefs were denominated timars, and are holden by furnishing an horse and soldiers in proportion to their value. Bajazet, or Bayezid, the second son of Amurath, was on that sultan's death immediately placed on his throne. His first exercise of authority was ordering his brother Jacob, who would have excited the army against him, to be strangled. He then thought only of extending the vast empire, which his father had left him. He first attacked the prince of Phrygia, whose daughter he had married, and entirely subdued his country in the space of two months. The following year he passed over into Europe. The success he met with there, excited in him hopes of becoming master of Constantinople, but the intervention of Tamerlane, already noticed, suspended for some time
A. D. 1402. the fall of the Greek empire. Solyman, the son of Bajazet, having escaped from the battle of Ancyra, was proclaimed sultan at Adrianople, by the few Ottoman troops that remained in Europe. This, when Musa, his elder brother, was set at liberty by Tamerlane, produced a civil war, in which Musa was obliged to retreat. Solyman, that he might not have to encounter both Greeks and Turks at the same time, concluded a peace with the emperour Manuel, ceding to him all his father's conquests in Europe, except Thrace, and some neighbouring provinces. Then turning his arms to Asia, he quickly recovered the greater part of what Tamerlane had conquered. But his success plunging him into debauchery, his brother Musa seized the opportunity of recommencing the war, and obliged him to flee to Adrianople, whither he followed to surprise
A. D. 1410. him. Solyman was slain on his way to Constantinople, by three assassins. Who instead of being highly rewarded, as they expected, by his brother, were burnt alive. Musa being then acknowledged for sultan by all the army in Europe, divided the empire with his brother Mahomet, whom that in Asia had also proclaimed. After
A. D. 1412. having obtained a very complete victory over the emperour Sigismund, his vizir, and one of his generals observing, that Musa gave himself up to debauchery, invited Mahomet to seize the whole empire, and in the end, his brother was put into his hands, and the
A. D. 1431. ungratefull Mahomet had him immediately put to death. Mahomet was immediately proclaimed sultan of all the Ottomans. This

prince made himself respected by all his neighbours. To the emperour Manuel he restored the places on the Euxine, the Propontis, and in Thessaly, which his predecessors had taken from him. Either Mustapha, the youngest son of Bajazet, or an impostor under his name, appearing in Walachia, there formed a party to dethrone Mahomet, but being pursued by the sultan, was compelled to take refuge in Thessalonica, then belonging to Manuel, who declined giving him up, but agreed to detain him as a prisoner as long as Mahomet lived. To punish them for supporting Mustapha, the sultan undertook an expedition against the Walachians, in returning from which he died; having by his courage and his prudence, re-established the Ottoman empire, shaken by long civil wars. Amurath the second, the eldest son of Mahomet, was acknowledged for his successor. Mustapha, his uncle, being released from prison, began to dispute the empire with him. But after some succeess gained by the assistance of the Greeks, having broken his covenant with them, their troops abandoned him; and his generals seeing that he resigned himself to indulgence, followed their example: on which he fell into the hands of Amurath, and was hanged. Amurath to revenge himself on the Greeks for the support they had given his uncle, ravaged Thrace, Thessaly, and Macedonia. In the mean time the emperour Manuel, prevailed on the governour of Chelibi Mustapha, the sultan's brother, to set that prince, but nine years old, on the throne, and reign in his name. The city of Nice receiving the usurper, Amurath flew into Asia, and his presence reduced Nice to its duty. The conspirators were arrested, and put to death without mercy. Nor did Amurath spare either Mustapha or his other brothers, but had them strangled in his presence. The sultan next turned his arms against the Christians, and took from the Venetians, to whom the Greeks had ceded it, the city of Thessalonica. An intrigue in the seraglio, induced Amurath to declare war against the despot of Servia, whose sister he had married. Semendria, the capital of state was taken after a vigourous siege. The despot put himself under the protection of Ladislaus, king of Poland and Hungary. In the war which consequently ensued with that monarch, John Huniades Wayvode of Transylvania, obtained advantages so

A. D. 1418.

A. D. 1421.

A. D. 1435.

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considerable over the Turks, that Amurath was obliged to conclude a truce for ten years with Hungary. This the Christians almost immediately infringing, the provoked and injured sultan sought Ladislaus in his camp, who being slain after a well-disputed contest, victory declared for the Turks. The next year, Amurath, with a strange caprice, resigned the reins of government to his son Mahomet, retiring to Magnesia, to give himself totally to pleasure. Mahomet selected Adrianople for the seat of his empire. But his youth being imposed on by his ministers, and his troops despising him, the state was soon plunged into the greatest confusion, and Amurath was induced at the end of four months to depose his son, and re-ascend the throne. Two years after this, Amurath endeavoured to reduce the famous Scanderbeg, prince of Epirus or Albania, but was foiled by that extraordinary warriour. This sultan after a reign of thirty years died at Adrianople. Three days after his father's death, Mahomet the second, was the second time proclaimed sultan. From nature he had received a strong body, a lively spirit, fruitfull in resources, and capable of science; but never was prince less of an honest man. Without either faith or rule of action, he counted probity for nothing, and laughed at all religions, not excepting that of his own prophet. He took Constantinople, as has been already related, after fifty days open trenches, and from this event the continuation of the Ottoman history being already detailed in that of Europe, we need here pursue it no further, but again pass to that of the adjoining empire in Asia, Persia.

A. D. 1444.

A. D. 1451.

A. D. 1453.

The History of Persia resumed.

After the retreat of Tamerlane, the Turcomans of the Black Sheep, so called from having a black sheep in their flag, made themselves masters of part of this empire, and in another half century, the Turcomans of the White Sheep, headed by Uzum Hassan, or Cassan, subdued not only that part, but the whole of Persia, properly so called. Alvand, his fourth successor, was dethroned by Ismael Sophi, whose family continued on the throne even to our own age. This warriour, the son of Schick Kaidar, and great-grandson of Sephi or Sophi, the restorer of the sect of Ali in Persia, having at the age of fourteen assembled under his flag a number of Alides, took from the above-mentioned Alvand, Tauris, and obliged him to flee

A. D. 1410.

A. D. 1468.

A. D. 1501.

A. D. 1510.

into Diarbeck, where he died. Nine years after this, Sophi made himself master of Bagdad, put to flight Morad Beg, the son of Aland, and conquered Khusistan, Chorasan, and some more of the country, over which reigned the princes of the family of Tamerlane: but he had not the same success against the Turks. Selim the first, A. D. 1514. emperour of the Ottomans, defeated and put him to flight, and took from him the city of Tauris. Four years after which the same monarch made still farther progress, possessing himself of Diarbeck, and several other places, which Sophy had conquered in Syria, and elsewhere. This prince governed his subjects with such gentleness A. D. 1523. and equity, that on his decease he was much regretted. He established in his dominions, the doctrine of the followers of Ali, in opposition to that of Sonnites, or Traditionaries, espoused by the Turks: whence the schism which exists between the Turks, and the Persians. To distinguish these, Sophi made them put a red stuff round their turbans, which led the Turks to call them kisilbaschs, or red heads. Ismael Sophi was succeeded by his eldest son, Thamas, or Thamasp. This schah had several wars in Chorasan with the Usbecks. The Ottoman sultan, Solyman, took from him the city of Tauris, which Sophi before his death had retaken, A. D. 1534. Sultania, Bagdad, and other places. But Thamas defeated him the year following. The war between these two powers being afterwards renewed, was terminated the same year by another victory A. D. 1548. gained by the Turks. Thamas died of poison given him by one of his wives, in the year fifteen hundred and seventy-five. Ismael the second, the second son of Thamas, was taken from a prison, in which he had by his father's order, been confined three and twenty years, and placed on the throne, in preference to his younger brother, Haïdar, whom his father had appointed for his successor. Neither was that of the throne, Haïdar's only loss. No sooner was his brother seated on it, than he took away his life. This murder having alienated from him most of the great men, Ismael feigned himself dangerously ill, and set on foot a report of his own death. Having discovered by their joy at this news who were adverse to him, he sacrificed to his vengeance all of them whom he could seize, and pursued those who fled, even to foreign courts. In the mean

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time, he was preparing for a war with the Turks: but as he was about to take the field, the grandees strangled him. Ismael thus disposed of, his brother Mohammed Khodabendeh, was proclaimed

A. D. 1585. sovereign at Casbin. He reigned eight years in continual war with the Turks. On his decease, Hamzeh, his eldest son, who had distinguished himself in those wars, succeeded him; but had not reigned a year, when his brother Ismael employed a eunuch to assassinate him. After this murder, Ismael himself ascended the throne; but after having reigned eight months, he was assassinated too, by one of his own domesticks, whom the governour of his

A. D. 1586. younger brother had gained, to prevent the like fate which he was preparing for that young prince. After the death of the murderous Ismael, Abbas, the third son of Khodabendeh, was proclaimed sovereign of Persia. Endowed with vigilance, valour, and ability, he began his achievements in a war against the Usbecks, and recovered from them Chorasan, of which they had deprived his predecessors. Abbas closed the war with the Turks, by ceding to them three provinces, among which was Armenia. But ere he parted with it, he removed from it two-and-twenty thousand families, which he divided into several colonies, and planted them in different parts of his dominions, with a view of turning to advantage the natural riches of them, by the activity and industry of the Armenians; as the indolence of the Persians rendered them incapable of the laborious and complicated operations of commerce. The measure succeeded; and from that time the Armenians have carried the commerce of Persia through the world. After schah Abbas had secured this benefit to his kingdom, he fixed on the city of Ispahan for his residence, and made it the capital of his dominions, and began that vast and superb palace which his successors finished. The Portuguese having possessed themselves of Bender-Abassi, and built two forts there, he with the assistance of the English, drove them

A. D. 1614. from thence, and at a later period with the aid of the same allies, he expelled the same people from the island of Ormus, and greatly did he

A. D. 1622. extend the limits of his territories by his conquests from the Moguls, and other nations. This prince, who acquired the title of Great, by his courage, magnificence, the care which he took to make commerce

and the arts flourish in his dominions, and the vigilant police which he established in them, but who tarnished the lustre of these good qualities, by adding to them the great vices of covetousness, cruelty, and deceit, died at Casbin, and was succeeded by his grandson, A. D. 1628. Sophy the second, only fifteen years old, and who proved the Nero of the Persians. He spilt the blood of the principal lords of Persia, put out the eyes of his only brother, had two of his uncles murdered, and buried his mother alive, together with forty women of his seraglio, accused of being concerned in a conspiracy against him. Still he had courage, and gained four great victories over the Turks; but giving himself up to intemperance, he lost the fruits of his first success. Amurath the fourth recovered Bagdad, and all Babylonia, which Abbas the great had conquered; and the Moguls retook the province of Candahar. Sophy died, by poison it was suspected, in A. D. 1642. the fourteenth year of his reign. Abbas the second, his son, succeeded him, at the age of thirteen. He imitated the magnificence of his great-grandfather, and is said not to have been his inferior in valour. Yet one expedition only of his is known, that by which he conquered Candahar from the Moguls. He loved the arts and artists, and was very affable to the Franks, and drank some of his own wine of Schiraz with Tavernier. The unrestrained voluptuousness to which he yielded, shortened his days, and he died in the A. D. 1666. twenty-fourth year of his reign. His eldest son Sophi Mirza, surnamed Solyman, became his successor. Pacifick through indolence, he performed nothing remarkable but acts of cruelty, when under the influence of wine, to which he was much addicted: A. D. 1694. he died in the twenty-eighth year of his reign. His second son, Hussein, was by the grandees of Persia, set on the throne in preference to his own elder brother, Mirza Abbas. Under his reign, the eunuchs of the palace had excessive power, which as usual, they abused. Irritated by their oppressions, the Afghans, a people of Candahar, revolted, and defeated some armies sent against them. Mir-Weis, their leader, was proclaimed sovereign of Candahar, who undertook even to dethrone Hussein, but when his conquests were much advanced, he was surprised by death. But his brother Mahmoud, afterwards elected in his place, having gained four battles,

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appeared before Ispahan, and when the place was nearly reduced, Schah Hussein surrendered himself, and yielded to Mahmoud his throne, giving him too his daughter in marriage. In the year
A. D. 1722. preceding this revolution, a great part of the city of Tauris, was swallowed up by an earthquake, and two hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants were said to have perished. Mahmoud made his entrance into Isphahan with great pomp, and when arrived at the palace, was by the unhappy Hussein saluted king of Persia, before the whole court. He then assumed the title of sultan, instead of that of schah. Yet Thamas, the third son of Hussein, was acknowledged for sovereign in several provinces. From this prince Mahmoud took Casbin, the city of his residence, Schiraz, and many other places, but receiving a check on the frontiers of Arabia, his vexation at it
A. D. 1725. became phrenzy; and when he was at the point of death, the Afghars deposed him; proclaiming for their sovereign Ashraf, the son of Mir-Abdallah, whom Hussein assassinated. No sooner had Ashraf possession of the throne, than he sent for the head of his father's murderer, though then expiring. The Turks having attacked the frontiers of Persia, and refused the peace which Ashraf demanded of them, he declared war against them; but after two campaigns of various success, concluded a peace with them. In the mean time,
A. D. 1728. the prince Thamas, continuing to reign over a part of Persia, his troops commanded by the renowned Kouli Khan, conquered Chorasan, and in the following year gained a victory over Ashraf,
A. D. 1730. which made him master of Ispahan. Ashraf himself was the next year slain in battle; and thus ended the usurpation of the Afghans. After the death of Ashraf, Thamas the second, son of Schah Hussein, was acknowledged sovereign of all Persia. His general, Kouli Khan, obtained all the power under this reign. To confirm his authority, he began by dismissing all the great officers which he suspected, and replacing them by his own creatures. Having defeated the Turks more than once, but the Persians on the other side receiving also defeats, a peace was made on the proposal of the Ottoman grand vizir. But Kouli Khan, angry that the treaty was concluded in his absence, wrote to his master to disavow it, and by a manifesto declared war a-new against the Turks. This the schah in his turn

disavowing, Kouli Khan advanced with seventy thousand men to the gates of Ispahan, invited the monarch to a review, and then to a great feast; at which Thamas becoming intoxicated, was conducted under a strong guard to an apartment in the gardens of the palace, and the next day Kouli Khan had him deposed by the great officers, A. D. 1732. as incapable of reigning. He then proclaimed Abbas Mirza, the son of schah Thamas, only six weeks old, and caused the regency to be given to himself. He renewed the war with the Turks, and went to besiege Bagdad, but was three times defeated by the bashaw of Teflis. But being afterwards attacked by the same commander, the bashaw was slain, and his army driven back beyond Tauris: two months after which, the bashaw of Bagdad concluded a peace with Kouli Khan, which the divan would not ratify, and hostilities A. D. 1736. were renewed. Schah Abbas then died, not without suspicion of being poisoned by the regent. In two months after this child's death, Nadir, better known by the name of Thamas Kouli Khan, was in an assembly of the grandees, proclaimed king of Persia. He was born in Chorasan, where the government of the castle of Kallat was hereditary in his family. Being deprived of the inheritance of his fathers, by his uncle, he became the captain of some banditti; and afterwards entered into the service of prince Thamas, with his troops, consisting of about three thousand men. Soon did his exploits entitle him to the command of the armies of that prince. Becoming, as we have seen, king of Persia, he made an advantageous peace with the Turks, who restored to him Tauris, Erivan, Georgia, and Persian Armenia. He afterwards turned his arms against Hindostan, A. D. 1739. made himself master of the empire, and of the person of the emperour of the Moguls. After getting possession of the vast treasures of that monarch, he restored to him his crown for a large tribute, still retaining to himself the provinces of India next to Persia. The war with the Turks being renewed, and proving not successfull to Kouli Khan it was much protracted, when several of the provinces which the Mogul had ceded to him revolted. At length he concluded a peace with the Turks. Immediately on the conclusion of this treaty, the grand signior caused the last prince of the house of the Sophies, whom at the commencement of the war he had

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A. D. 1747.

proclaimed king of Persia, to be confined in the citadel of Kars, in Armenia. Kouli Khan on returning to his dominions, perpetrated great cruelties on those whose fidelity he suspected. Hence conspiracies were formed; he was obliged to leave Ispahan, to take refuge in his camp in Chorasan: where he was assassinated by the chiefs of his army: among whom, it is said, was his own nephew. This nephew, after the death of his uncle, contrived to place himself on the throne of Persia, by the name of Adil Schah; and by the reduction of some on the borders of the Caspian Sea, who rebelled against him, he appeared for a time to be peaceably settled on it. But this tranquillity was of very short duration. A general insurrection took place in the capital, and the country was over-run by armed parties, and filled with blood and confusion. Among the insurgents was Mirza Ibrahim, the schah's brother; and so successfull was he, that he defeated Adil, took him prisoner, and deprived [illegible]n of his sight, and caused himself to be crowned. At the sam[illegible] Shaurake, a young prince, grandson to Nadir, was crowne[illegible] Moshat; and having the same success against Mirza, as this [illegible]nst Adil,

A. D. 1749.

treated him in the same manner, and obtain[illegible] of the throne. This, however, he does not se[illegible]ed. Two new [illegible]titors for the crown soon [illegible]ed schah Do[illegible] schah Noub, during [illegible]city of Is[illegible]ered even to desolation. The wretched state to which [illegible]sia was now reduced, tempted a Georgian prince of the name of

A. D. 1751.

Heraclius, to attempt the conquest of it; and he, assisted by the Afghans, entered it at the head of a numerous army. In the mean time, schah Doub, having taken one of his competitors prisoner, according to the barbarous custom of the country, deprived him of his sight, and subsequently met with such success in reducing the country to his obedience, that the troubles of the empire seemed at length to be appeased. This happy calm, however, was of very brief duration. New contests for the sovereignty arose, and such was the devastation caused in that unhappy region as to be thus described in the latter part of the year seventeen hundred and fifty-two. "There is not a city or town in this vast empire, but is two-thirds fallen to ruin, and as to the villages, which heretofore were very populous, few

of them are inhabited. The arable lands remain uncultivated; the cattle are almost all destroyed, and the silk manufacture is sinking to nothing." Schah Doub having received a defeat from prince Heraclius, had now retired into the territories of the Great Mogul, and there was in Persia, no longer any civil government. The conquerour, prince Heraclius, was master of Ispahan; but the rise of a new competitor, who pretended to be of the race of the Sophies, protracted the confusion of that distracted empire: yet the Georgian prince was peaceably proclaimed king, and under his government hopes began to be entertained, that peace would gain an establishment. But quickly three new competitors started up for the throne; Karini Khan established himself in the capital; Jacki Khan dwelling on the confines of India, appeared at the head of thirty thousand men, to seize consisting the Persian provinces in his neighbourhood; and the king of the Afghans marched with a large force to expell Karini Khan from Ispahan. These devastating armies prepared the way for famine and pestilence. Prince Heraclius defeated the troops that the three Khans brought against him; but no party acquired a sufficient superiority to establish another permanent dynasty: neither does it appear that during the eight succeeding years that intervened ere the close of the period to which this history is to be brought down, Persia was delivered from these sanguinary contentions, and desolating ravages of competitors for her throne.

The history of India resumed.

From the commencement of the seventh of the periods which this compilation comprizes, for the space of a century there appears, from the silence of history, to have occurred nothing worthy of being recorded;* but in seven hundred and seven of our æra, Mohammed Ebro Casim, a general of the then reigning caliph of the Saracens, was sent to attempt the subjection of India, and attacked, defeated, and slew Dahar, the then reigning king of Sind, and took Moultan his capital, and it has been said, that his conquests were extended to the country on this side of the Ganges. But whether they reached to that river or not,

* Our own indefatigable historian of India, instead of relating any transactions in that country for a century, has employed his pages in detailing the progress of the Saracens, in the intermediate regions between Arabia and India.

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the regions subdued seemed to have continued in a tranquil state of tribute, until the latter end of the tenth century; when a sultan of Gazna, named Subuctagi, who himself had been a soldier of fortune,

A. D. 977. in the very first year of his reign commenced, under the pretext of religion, a destructive war on the idolaters of India, but contented himself with ravaging only the frontiers; yet he returned to Gazna loaded with plunder. A sovereign named Jeipal, then reigned in Lahore, who, dreading a repetition of these predatory expeditions, resolved to attempt the prevention of them by acting on the offensive, but proved so unsuccessfull, that after meeting Subuctagi, he was compelled to agree to purchase a safe retreat. But the faithless Indian, when safely returned, refused to pay the stipulated sum. Irritated at the insult, as well as the loss suffered by this breach of treaty, Subuctagi marched with all his forces against Jeipal, who, being assisted from a sense of common danger, by the sovereigns of Delhi, Ajmere, Callinger, and Canouge, with their tributaries, met him with an host of three hundred thousand men, but such as were unable to withstand the attack of Subuctagi's hardy troops. The Hindoos were defeated, and the immense wealth of their camp rewarded their conquerour; who postponed his project of penetrating into India, neither did subsequent circumstances permit him

A. D. 997. to execute it. But after his decease, when his younger son Ismael had been defeated, in a treacherous effort to wrest the inheritance of the sultany from his elder brother Mahmud, and this last, by the extinction of the Samanian dynasty of Bokharia, was rendered secure

A. D. 1000. as to his hereditary dominions, he resolved on attacking the idolaters of Hindostan, and consequently soon found a plea for invading the kingdom of Lahore, which his father had reduced to tribute. A battle with its sovereign quickly took place, Mahmud was victorious, and his booty is represented as almost incredible, since the necklace only of Jeipal, who was taken prisoner, is said to have been worth more than five millions sterling. The Indian rajah ransomed himself for a large sum, and an increase of tribute. But so deeply was he penetrated with the disgrace, that, after having resigned his sovereignty to his son, he had a funeral pyre constructed, and plunged into the flames. Eleven other expeditions did Mahmud in the

course of four-and-twenty years make into India, penetrating into its richest cities, plundering its most famous temples; the celebrated cities of Delhi and Canouge became his prey, and through thirty degrees of longitude under the line, from Guzzerat to beyond the Ganges, did the country feel his desolating hand. By the reduction of so large a part of India under the sultans of Gazna, they gained the denomination of kings of Gazna and India. Mahmud left two sons, twins, the younger of whom he appointed his successor; his name was Mohammed. But the elder, Massud, was the object of the people's choice, while he deemed himself the rightfull heir of the throne. He at first, however, requested of his brother, only a larger portion of the very extensive territories which their father had left, and particularly those countries which his own sword had added to the empire: this Mohammed refused; but when preparing to prevent that being taken from him by violence, which he was not inclined to give, he was deserted by his ablest generals, betrayed by some disaffected Omrahs, into the hands of his brother, and by him A. D. 1028. deprived of sight. Massud then mounted the throne, and finding that during the confusion occasioned by the contest between himself and his brother, many of the cities in India reduced by sultan Mahmud, had revolted, he marched an army towards that country by the higher route through Cashmire, and took the fort of Sursutti. Six years after which he sent an army under an Indian chief, to subdue Ahmud the governour of Guzzerat, who had rebelled. Ban, the Indian chief, being defeated, Massud dispatched another chief of the same nation, named Toulock, from whom Ahmud received a total overthrow, himself and the greater part of his army perishing in A. D. 1035. their flight. In the following year, Massud himself again bent his march towards India, and attacked and took the strong fort and city of Hassi, the capital of Sewalic, where he found great treasures; and having secured them, marched on to the fort of Sunput, forty miles from Delhi. Deipal, the Indian governour, evacuated the fort, and fled into the woods, and his treasure fell into the hands of Massud, who ordered all the temples of the places he captured to be demolished, and the idols to be destroyed. Deipal again appearing in arms was surprised by the sultan, and his army taken prisoners,

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himself escaping only by assuming the habit of a slave. The sultan then directed his march to the territories of one of the most powerfull and wealthy rajahs of those parts, named Raum; but this prudent chief, by a seasonable apology for not having waited on him accompanied with presents of very great value, averted the menaced storm, and Massud having taken possession of the whole country in his rear, proceeded to Lahore. Here he appointed his son, Mayudud, governour, giving him for his chief counseller his favourite general Eur, who was also an able and experienced statesman. Further desolation of India by Massud was for the present prevented by his being recalled to relieve Chorasan and Persian Irak from the inroads of the Seljukian Tartars. But the numerous forces under Togrul Beg, and Jaffar Beg, the grandsons of Seljuk, defeated the army of Massud; who after many vigorous but unsuccessfull efforts to expell the Tartars from his dominions, took the resolution of retiring into India, until he could collect his forces, and by a great exertion retrieve his affairs. He accordingly was proceeding to Lahore with all his treasure upon camels; but the slaves confederated when on the march, with those who guarded the camels to plunder the treasure, and the troops thinking their sovereign likely to sink under his enemy, joined in seizing as each was able, a portion of his wealth, and after the tumult thus occasioned had subsided, to avoid the punishment due to their guilt, they deposed Massud, and placed his brother Mohammed, whom he had released from confinement, and brought so far with him, on the throne. Mohammed wishing only to secure, not to destroy his brother, permitted him to choose the place of his confinement, and promised him the comfort of his family. But the new sultan, soon finding himself from his blindness, inadequate to his situation, resigned his throne to his son Ahmed, who, without consulting him, went to the castle, where his uncle was confined, and with the assistance of two ruffians, assassinated the dethroned sovereign. But Massud's son, Modud, having heard of the tragical death of his father, vowed revenge; and advancing at the head of a well-disciplined army, he engaged that of Ahmed, completely routed it; and that prince, Mohammed, and the two assassins, were all taken prisoners, and immediately ordered for

execution. Modud now ascended the throne of Gazna. Another son of Mohammed sunk before his arms, and a brother of his own, who claimed a share of his territories, died ere they came to a battle; but over the Seljuks, of whom Togrul Beg had possession of Persian Irak, A. D. 1041. and Jaffar the province of Charasm, Modud could gain no advantage. The apparent weakness of the Gaznavian empire, drained both of troops and money, by the repeated contests with the Seljukian Turks, encouraged the rajahs of the northern provinces of India to combine together for the expulsion of the posterity of the ravager of their country, Mahmud Gaznavi. At the head of this coalition was the rajah of Delhi, who with a most numerous army, having recovered the fort of Nusi, and Tannassar, by a fraud on his bigotted followers, excited them to overcome the determined resistance they experienced at the fort of Naugracut. A vision was feigned of the idol which Mahmud had mutilated and removed to Gazna, in which he promised to meet the rajah of Delhi in his former temple. The Brahmins having spread this rumour, multitudes flocked to assist in the assault of the fort; their superstitious phrenzy was irresistible, and the Brahmins delighted the victors with the sight of another idol, the counterpart of the former, and privately conveyed into the fort, who was borne to his supposed ancient temple in triumph on their shoulders. Henceforth the fame of this idol was so diffused through the country, that thousands came daily to worship him, and others to consult him as an oracle. Animated by the success of the rajah of Delhi, all those which reigned in the Panjab, set their masters at defiance, and uniting their forces marched to Lahore; but here they were beaten by the forces of Modud. Yet A. D. 1044. the flame of insurrection was not subdued until the following year, when the rebellious rajahs were finally reduced, and the conquered places, except Naugracut, retaken. Four years after this, having had considerable success in other parts, Modud was attacked with an internal complaint, which soon brought on his death. On the A. D. 1049. sultan's decease, Ali, one of his generals, placed Massud, one of his sons, but only four years of age, on the throne; but another commander, Hajib, proposed Abul Hassen, another son of Modud, but of mature age. Many of the Omrahs and great officers of the court

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supporting this last candidate, the dispute was soon brought to the decision of a battle, which ending in favour of Hajib, Massud after a reign of six days was deposed, and Abul Hassen declared sultan. But the vanquished Ali having broken open the royal treasury, and robbed it of a vast quantity of gold and jewels, fled with a company of slaves and some rebellious chiefs, to Peishore, an Omrah of the name of Mirik having associated himself with him. Here being joined by the natives, and collecting a very numerous army, they reduced Sind and Moultan to their obedience. In the mean time, Abdalrashid, a son of sultan Mahmud, who had by the order of Modud, been imprisoned, was on the death of that monarch released by the vizir Abdel Rysac from his confinement, as the rightfull heir to the throne of Gazna; and during the contentions of the two factions already detailed, his cause was daily gaining strength, so that in the second year of Abul Hassen's reign, he confidently approached the capital, where he gained a complete
A. D. 1052. victory over his rival, and immediately ascended the throne, ordering his antagonist, who was shortly after seized, into confinement in a fort. Abdalrashid or Abdul Reshid, prevailed by his offers on Ali, who still reigned in India, to submit to him, and return to Gazna, and over those extensive provinces he appointed another Hajib governour, and by the army which he led into his government, was the fort of Naugracut once more taken by assault. The new sultan having experienced the great military talents of Togrul, the former general of Modud, had sent him into Seistan, and invested him with greater powers than any former governour. Here Togrul, having a fine army at his command, conceived the ungratefull design of dethroning his benefactor, and ascending the throne himself. This project he executed, carrying the citadel of Gazna, and putting to death the sultan and nine of his family. Having assumed the title of sultan, Togrul summoned the distant governours to acknowledge his authority, among which was Hajib in India. But he answered only with contempt and reproach, and privately dispatching letters to a daughter of the murdered sultan, named Anca, whom Togrul had married, and to the principal Omrahs of the court, conjuring them to attempt some mode of getting rid of a monster so detestable.

Ten of the nobility, of determined courage, immediately combined, and slew the tyrant while sitting on his usurped throne. Hajib himself arriving at Gazna with the army, made enquiry in a council of state whether there yet remained any of the race of Subuctagi, and found that there were in prison Firoch Zaad, Ibrahim, and Suja. These he had released, and it being determined that the possession of the throne should be decided by lot, it fell to Firoch Zaad, who immediately ascended it, and received the homage of the courtiers. Firoch or Feroch Zaad, or for brevity's sake, Ferokhzad, gave the reins of administration to Hajib, who justified his choice by defeating the Seljukian chief Jaffar Beg, who had advanced with a formidable army to Gazna, and taking all his camp-equipage, and baggage. The war against this power was carried on for some time with a variation of success, and after a reign of six years Ferokhzad died. To what remained of the empire of Gazna, now A. D. 1058. reduced to very narrow limits by its Seljukian enemies, Ibrahim, the son of sultan Massud the second, succeeded. He concluded a treaty of peace with the sovereign of the above-mentioned Turks, Malec Schah, and, to strengthen the alliance, married his son Massud to Malec's daughter. As zealous as his ancestors for the Mahometan faith, and determined to retain in subjection to his authority the conquests in India, Ibrahim sent a considerable army into that country, and took possession of many places in it yet unsubdued. He at length marched thither in person, and extended his conquests A. D. 1079. to the fort of Adjodin, and still prosecuting them, they in the end became such as to acquire for him, the titles of the Conquerour and the Triumphant. His reign was extended to the length of forty-two years, when he died leaving no fewer than thirty-six sons and forty- A. D. 1088. two daughters. On the decease of this monarch, his son Massud ascended the throne of Gazna, and became the third king, of that country and India, of that name. He took in marriage the daughter of Sinjar, the successor of Malec Schah, king of the Seljuks, which rendered durable the peace between them. This tranquillity on the western side of his dominions, gave his generals leisure to carry their arms further in India, than the conquests of the great Mahmud himself; they crossed the Ganges, and having plundered many rich

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cities and temples, returned with the wealth to Lahore, which was now become the favourite residence of the Gaznavian kings. After a reign of sixteen years, in which no other foreign wars or any

A. D. 1114. domestick troubles occurred, Massud died; Arsilla his son, having murdered his elder brother Shire, assumed the sceptre with his blood-stained hand. His remaining brothers he then closely confined; yet Byram, one of them, escaped from his guards, and fled to his uncle Sinjar, who was governour of the province of Chorasan, for his brother Mohammed, king of Persia. Sinjar immediately demanded the release of his nephews, and on the refusal of Arsilla, marched against him to gain justice by force. Mehid, the widow of Massud, burning with eagerness to revenge the murder of one son, and the imprisonment of the others, prevailed upon Arsilla to send her to negociate a peace with her brother Sinjar, and having got a large sum of money to promote the treaty, repaired to Sinjar's camp, and employed it in encouraging and enabling him and Byram to proceed in their expedition. The effects of which were the defeat and flight of Arsilla, and the seating of Byram on his father's throne. But Arsilla returning on the departure of Sinjar, drove Byram from Gazna, but his uncle again marching to his support, Arsilla was again put to the rout, and in his flight his Omrahs seized him, and delivered him bound to Sinjar, who deeming it just to take blood for

A. D. 1118. blood, had him put to death. Byram succeeded without opposition to the vacant throne. Balin, who held the government of Lahore on the part of Arsilla, proving refractory, Byram marched against, defeated, and took him prisoner; but on his swearing allegiance, he pardoned and reinstated him in his government, returning himself to Gazna. The ungratefull Balin having afterwards some success against the independent Indian princes, conceived hopes of seizing the empire; of which Byran being apprized, marched a second time towards Hindostan, and being met by Balin, and his ten sons, each the governour of a province, a fearfull battle ensued: the rebels were defeated, and in his flight, Balin with his ten sons and attendants, sunk in a bog, in which they all perished. After this victory, the king appointed Hussein to the command of the conquered part of India, and returned again to Gazna. But soon causing to be

publickly executed Mohammed prince of Gaur, who was son-in-law to the rebel Balin, Seiful Dien, brother to the executed prince, raised a great army to revenge his death. Byram unable to oppose him, evacuated Gazna, and Seiful Dien took possession of it; but the former returning with a large army at the private request of the citizens, Seiful Dien, being betrayed, fell into his hands, and after having been ignominiously treated, was put to a cruel death. When a third brother, named Alla, was informed of this, determined on a severe revenge, with all the power he could raise he invaded Gazna. Byram intrepidly met him; but his army was routed, and he himself having very narrowly escaped with his life, fled with the remains of it towards Hindostan; but overwhelmed with his misfortunes, he sunk in death after a reign of thirty-five years. Chosro, the son of A. D. 1152. Byram, on his father's death continued the retreat to Lahore, and was there saluted king; having left the kingdom of Gazna to his enemies, who inflicted on the capital of it all the miseries of rapine, fire, and slaughter, during a space of seven days. Chosro, after losing all hope of recovering the kingdom of his fathers, governed the Indian provinces in peace for seven years, and on his decease was A. D. 1159. succeeded by his son, Chosro the second, who extended his dominion over most of the provinces formerly possessed by the emperours Ibrahim and Byram. But Mohammed, brother to the prince of Gaur, not satisfied with ravaging the kingdom of Gazna, marched an army into India, and over-running the provinces of Peishore, Afghanistan, Moultan, and the Indus, advanced to Lahore, but proving unable to take that city, entered into a treaty with Chosro; in consequence of which he evacuated the country, carrying away with him the emperour's son, named also Chosro, of four years old, as an hostage. The elder Chosro not adhering strictly to the treaty, his adversary returned, but being yet unable to take Lahore, he built the fort of Salcot, and leaving a strong garrison in it, led back his army to Gazna. However, being determined to put an end to the dynasty of the Gaznavide sultans, in the subsequent year Mohammed collected all his forces, and marched towards Lahore. But having experienced the difficulty of reducing that city, he had recourse to treachery; and having lulled the suspicions of Chosro, by releasing

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his son, he surrounded the camp of the too credulous monarch, compelled him to throw himself on his mercy, and thus obtained unresisted possession of Lahore; and this acquisition transferred this extensive empire from the House of Gazna to that of Gaur. Mohammed shortly after caused Chosro and his whole family to be
A. D. 1184. put to death; but he did not make the newly acquired capital his residence, but appointing Ali the viceroy of Moultan to govern that city and province, he himself returned to Gazna. Some years after, it is said, he again marched into Hindostan, and after some success received from the combined princes of the country a complete defeat. But after being recovered from a wound then received, and taking something more than a year's respite from the toils of war, he again advanced with a large army into Hindostan, routed the vast host of the king of Delhi and his allies; and after having proceeded to the reduction of several places, he entrusted his faithfull slave, named Cuttub, with a considerable detachment of his army, who on Mohammed's return to Gazna, took the city of Delhi from the family
A. D. 1193. of Candi Rai, and made that capital the seat of his government. Mohammed in the mean time again left Gazna for the country beyond the Ganges, and totally defeated Rai Joy, prince of Canouge and Benares, took the fort in which his treasure was deposited, and proceeding to the city of Benares, demolished the idols in above a thousand temples, and laden with treasure took the route to Gazna. Gola, king of Ajmere, a tributary of Mohammed, being invaded by one of his relations, named Himrage, applied to Cuttub for assistance, who hesitated not to carry it to him; and Himrage venturing an engagement, lost both the victory and his life. After which Cuttub led his army to Narwalla, the capital of Guzzerat, and having defeated Bim Deo, plundered that rich country, but was soon recalled to Delhi by orders from Gazna. After some more acquisitions in India, Mohammed on the death of his brother Yeasul Dien, who had long possessed nothing of the empire but the name, was according to his will crowned in form. But soon involving himself in a war with the king of Tartary and Samarcand, he experienced a most destructive defeat. From the low state to which this reduced him he yet recovered, and defeated the Gickers, a tribe of moun-

taineers, who on a false report of his death had marched against Lahore. Having settled the affairs of India in peace he returned to Gazna. But setting out on another expedition, having marched as far as the banks of the Nilab, he was there assassinated, when asleep in his tent, by twenty Gickers, who had lost some of their relations in their wars against him. To Mohammed Gauri, succeeded his nephew Mahmud. Of exploits of this pusillanimous and voluptuous prince, history makes no mention, he seems to have continued the governours which his uncle had appointed, in their several places, and having at length, contrary to his usual custom, engaged in a dispute with Mohammed sultan of Charasm, (sometimes written Chowaresm) that powerfull monarch marched into his territories, and made himself master of the thrones of both Gaur and Gazna; and afterwards he, like his uncle, perished by the hands of assassins. With Gazna and Gaur, the Indian territories of Cabul, Lahore, and other countries situate about the Indus, appear to have fallen under the dominion of Mohammed the Charasmian. This conquerour affected to take Alexander for his model, and aspired to the sovereignty of the earth; and almost boundless was the magnificence of his court. His dominions to the north and east, were bounded by those of Genghiz Khan. This mighty conquerour is said to have signified his inclination to live on friendly terms with Mohammed by ambassadors, and honourable presents. But by the stern and suspicious sultan of Charasm these presents were deemed snares, and the ambassadors spies. His haughty soul disdained a rival, and his bigotry inflamed his indignation more especially against an infidel rival. Determined to provoke a war, he ordered both the arrest and the murder of three embassadors, and a caravan of merchants. By other embassadors Genghiz demanded an explanation of this barbarous and sanguinary deed, and three other noble Moguls were put to the sabre while delivering their master's commands, in the presence of the savage Mohammed. Enraged at this gross insult, Genghiz, on being informed of it, put his army in motion, consisting at that time, it is said, of seven hundred thousand men, led by himself and his four sons. Mohammed heard unappalled of the approach of this vast host, and prepared to meet it with four hundred thousand choice

A. D. 1205.

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and well-disciplined troops. When these numerous forces met, obstinate was the contest, and shocking slaughter: night alone put an end to it; and when the day returned, an hundred and sixty thousand Charasmians, and a still larger number of Moguls were seen weltering in their blood. Mohammed's army retired within their intrenchments, and after some days effected a retreat. The attempt to weary out the Tartars by numerous and protracted sieges failed of effect. The cities of Bokhara, and Samarcand fell, as did the capital and all the country of Charasm. Mohammed was vigorously pursued to the shores of the Caspian; but being never quite
A. D. 1220. overtaken, he escaped to a small desert island, and there died of a pleurisy. Gelaleddin, the eldest son of Mohammed on his father's death immediately repaired to Nishapour, the capital of Chorasan, and assumed the title of sultan. The treasure which his father had providently placed in security, enabled him to raise an army, with which he twice engaged the Moguls; at first with success, but the last time with the slaughter of two of his brothers, and that of nearly all his soldiers. Still undaunted, though unable to meet Genghiz in the field, he took possession of Gazna, a strongly fortified city, whose inhabitants received and readily supported him. The Gaznavians having raised powerfull reinforcements for him, and a Persian nobleman, named Amin Malek, having joined him with ten thousand Turkish cavalry, he was enabled to raise the siege of the citadel of Candahar, whence he returned in triumph with his new ally to Gazna. An army of Moguls being sent to take vengeance on Gelaleddin, when they had advanced near to Gazna, he attacked and defeated them with great slaughter. Enraged at this second defeat of his troops, Genghiz, as soon as he was at liberty, made a most impetuous march to Gazna, but when arrived there, found that Gelaleddin had left the city, and was retreating towards the Indus, being deserted by his Turkish auxiliaries. Genghiz followed him; but by the enterprise of his enemy, the van of his army suffered a defeat on the banks of that river. At length a general engagement being brought on, the comparatively little band of Gelaleddin was defeated, but he himself escaped by swimming the Indus on horseback; and being on the other side joined by many officers and men,

who had likewise crossed it, he again found himself at the head of a formidable force. With these he is said to have made conquests in India, and to have established himself for three years at Moultan; and the increase of his power alarming the princes of the country, they united against him, obliged him to cross the Indus, and even then pursued him. Yet he afterwards recovered the sovereignty of a considerable part, and repeatedly beat the Mogul armies in the field; but was at last betrayed and murdered; and with him the line of Charazmian sovereigns became extinct. From all the preceding statements it is manifest, that during the reigns of the dynasties of Gaźna, Gaur, and Charasm, India had no pre-eminent royal dynasty, no powerfull prince, like Sandrocottus and Bickermajit, to direct its internal concerns, or its military operations against a foreign foe. If the maharajah did sit on the throne of Canouge or Delhi, his power was merely nominal. When the existence of the empire was menaced, he might be allowed to take the command of the combined forces of the country, and during the continuance of the operations receive obedience. But during peace he possessed no sufficient authority to controul the different factions, which had caused the partition of its provinces, among the superior line of rajahs who headed them. Their unsatiated invaders from the west, were in fact the lords paramount of India, to whom the tribute was regularly transmitted by those chieftains who chose to be at peace, and numerous armies of Afghans were ever ready to enforce the payment. Yet the Decan, or great southern portion of the peninsula, was still unannoyed, and remained with few exceptions in quiet subjection to its chiefs of ancient Indian descent. By the consent of Mohammed Gauri, as has been already noticed, Cuttub (called by some writers Cothbeddin Ibek), had established himself in Delhi; where he founded the first dynasty of Afghan kings, who reigned over all Hindostan, until the invasion of Timur Beg. Cuttub was by Mahmud, Mohammed Gaur's successor, presented with all the ensigns of royalty, and the title of king, and ascended the throne at Lahore, where after having suffered on account of his intemperate life, and altered it, he died by a fall from his horse. On the death of Cuttub, his son Aram ascended the throne of Delhi, but by his

A. D. 1231.

A. D. 1210

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inadequacy to the regal duties, provoked the great Omrahs, after that by attacks from different quarters he had lost much of his dominions, to invite Altumsh, who was both son-in-law, and adopted son of Cuttub, and then governour of Budaoon, to remove him, and take his place. Altumsh accepted the invitation; and having gained a decisive victory over Aram, seized the empire. Seven years after he was established on the throne, he proved victorious over Nasir, another son-in-law of Cuttub; and when four years later the unfortunate Gelaleddin being defeated by Genghiz Khan, retreated towards Lahore; Altumsh opposed him with all his forces, and in another four years he led his army towards Behar and Bengal, where he obliged Yeasul Dien, then prince of the last to swear allegiance, and pay tribute to him. But he appointed his own son Nasir, to the government of that province, and left Yeasul Dien in that of Bahar. Soon after which a war breaking out between Nasir and Yeasul Dien, the last was defeated and slain, and Nasir took possession of his principality and treasure. Altumsh in the mean time forced all the provinces on the Indus, then under the command of Cabaja, to submit to his imperial power. He afterwards reduced the country of Sewalic. At this time he received an embassy from the Arabian princes, with the robes of the caliphat, which he assumed with joy, making a great feast, and distributing rich presents. In the same year his eldest son Nasir dying, he conferred the title of prince of Bengal on his younger. Six years after he reduced the fort of Gwalior, which had fallen into the hands of the Hindoos. After another conquest or two as proceeding with his army to settle the affairs of the province of Moultan, he was seized by an illness which obliged him to return to Delhi, where he expired under it. His son Ferose immediately ascended the throne, but filled it very unworthily. His father's treasure he squandered on dancing-women, comedians, and musicians, and left the government to his mother; who had been a Turkish slave, and now became a monster of cruelty, murdering all the women of Altumsh's Haram, and the youngest of his sons. A confederacy was soon formed among the rajahs; sultana Rizia, the late emperour's eldest daughter was placed on the throne; Ferose's mother was imprisoned, and he himself died in confinement

A. D. 1235.

some time after. Sultana Rizia had every qualification necessary in the greatest kings, and had once acted as regent during her father's life-time, in his absence. On her accession she changed her apparel, assumed the imperial robes, and every day gave publick audience, and distributed justice from the throne. Yet her father's vizir, Janedi, took the lead of an insurrection against her, which the empress overcame by politically sowing dissentions among the conspirators. But having preferred an Abyssinian slave, of the name of Jamal, to the high office of captain-general of the empire, this promotion gave great disgust, and the viceroy of Lahore, in particular, prepared for hostilities; yet being deserted by his confederates, was obliged to sue for pardon. But Altunia, governour of Tiberhind, openly rebelling for the same cause, the empress led her army against him, and on the march the Turks in it mutinied, and in a conflict that ensued, her Abyssinian general was slain, and she herself seized and sent to Altunia. The army then returning to Delhi, the Turkish Omrahs placed her brother Byram on the throne. But A. D. 1239. in three years time he too was dethroned by his vizir at the head of factious military officers, while the Moguls plundered the provinces in the Punjab, and then returned to Gazna. The greater part of the princes and the nobility on Byram's death took Massud the son of the late emperour Ferose from his confinement, and placed him on the throne; but proving a weak prince, who was a slave to pleasure, the princes and Omrahs sent for his uncle Mahmud from Barage; and while he was advancing towards the capital, they threw the emperour into prison, where he remained for life. Their choice of Mahmud was founded on his reputation for justice and policy. The new sovereign soon took the field, and turned his arms towards Moultan; and having himself encamped, he sent his vizir to reduce the territories near the Indus, and he revenged himself on the Gickers for their continual incursions, and for guiding the Moguls into Hindostan. By punishing some of the Omrahs who had neglected to send their quota of troops, he firmly established his authority in Moultan, and the Punjab. The vizir was afterwards sent towards Rantampore, and the mountains of Merwar to chastise, which he did effectually, the rebellious inhabitants of those countries.

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This same year Mahmud married the daughter of his vizir Balin. The elder Balin was two years afterwards in rebellion, but was defeated, pardoned, and reinstated in his government. The emperour having after a short stay at Delhi, proceeded to the siege of Narvar, was there met by the Indian prince Sahir Deo, who had just built that fortress on a steep rock, with five thousand horse and two hundred thousand foot. This huge host was defeated with great slaughter, and the place reduced. The emperour then proceeded to Chinderi and Malava, and having settled the affairs of those countries returned to Delhi. In the mean time the emperour's nephew, Shere, who was considered a prodigy of wisdom, valour, and every royal virtue, drove the Moguls out of the kingdom of Gazna, and annexed it once more to the empire. Five years after this an army of Moguls crossed the Indus, but fled on Mahmud's approach. And in two years more the vizir was sent towards Sewalic and Rantampore, to oppose a very numerous body of Indians, who were ravaging the country: they retired before him into the mountains, yet there he routed them, and ravaged that country in return. The princes of those rajaputs at length acting from despair, rushed with all their forces down the mountains; a violent action ensued, and they were defeated with great loss, though the imperial army did not suffer a little. Early in the same year an embassador from Hallacu, the grandson of Genghiz and king of Persia, arrived at Delhi, and met with a reception calculated to impress on his mind an high idea of the power and magnificence of the Indian monarch. After which nothing particular occurred until the emperour fell sick, and having
A. D. 1265. lingered some months died much lamented by his people. Mahmud leaving no sons, his vizir, Balin, who was of the same family, mounted the throne. No sooner was he seated on it, than he either by sword or poison put to death all who with himself had been concerned in a conspiracy to seize the empire on the decease of the emperour Altumsh; among whom was his own nephew, Shere. After he had by these assassinations dispelled his fears, his government was so just and wise, that the kings of Persia and Tartary courted his alliance. Such too was his generosity, that more than twenty unfortunate sovereigns, who had been overthrown by the

arms of Genghiz, sought and found protection at his court. They had princely allowances, and for their residence palaces were allotted them; and in their retinue were the men the most celebrated at that time in Asia, for learning, arts, and sciences; so that the court of India was in the days of Balin accounted the most polite and magnificent in the world. A work like this admits of detailing but very few particulars of the grandeur displayed by this monarch; suffice it to say, that as the pomp of the royal presence, and the ceremonial of introduction to it, were such as to excite astonishment and reverence in the beholders, so were the cavalcades of Balin most sumptuous. His state elephants were caparisoned in purple and gold. For his horse-guards he had a thousand noble Tartars on Persian steeds, with bridles of silver, and saddles of rich embroidery. Five hundred chosen men in rich livery ran before him with sabres drawn, proclaiming his approach, and clearing the way. All the Omrahs with their equipages and attendants followed; and the monarch seldom went out with less than one hundred thousand men; which he was used to say, was not to gratify his vanity, but to exalt himself in the eyes of the people. Mohammed Tartar, the son of Arsilla, having begun to assert independence in Bengal, was compelled to send the usual tribute to Delhi. In the course of the same A. D. 1269. year an army was sent to extirpate a certain tribe of banditti, called Mewats, possessing an extensive wilderness to the south-east of Delhi, whence they made excursions in very numerous bodies to the very gates of the city. The slaughter of more than an hundred thousand of these wretches, and the clearing of the woods for the circumference of more than an hundred miles, removed the nuisance. The Moguls after the death of the emperour's nephew, Shere, having recommenced their depredations on the provinces about the five branches of the Indus, and the dissentions among the subahs, preventing them from doing any thing effectual for the publick good, Balin appointed his eldest son Mohammed viceroy of all those frontier provinces. This prince possessed a comprehensive genius, was a great patron of learned men, and was himself entitled to be classed among the royal authors. When at this time every thing appeared in peace A. D. 1279. throughout the empire, the governour of Bengal, named Togril,

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having led an army against the Indian princes about Jainague, defeated them, and taken much plunder, made from it no acknowledgement to the king, and hearing at the same time a rumour of his death, assumed the royal insignia, and declared himself king of Bengal. Balin having commanded him without effect to return to his allegiance, sent an army to enforce his order; but this Togril defeated, as likewise a second, ordered on the same service. At length Balin took the field in person, when Togril having retreated, was, after a vigorous pursuit, by a bold enterprise of one of the emperour's officers, put to death. Balin then appointed his own son Risa, king of Bengal, and returned to Delhi. Here his eldest son being on a visit to him, received advice that the Moguls had invaded Moultan; on which, returning to his government, he defeated and slew their chief, and recovered all the territories which they had seized. Timur, of the family of Genghiz, who at this time governed all the eastern provinces of Persia, invaded India, and having ravaged the country about Debalpoor and Lahore, turned towards Moultan. The prince Mohammed, who was then in that province, hastened to oppose him. In the engagement which ensued, both commanders distinguished themselves by their valour and conduct: the Moguls were put to flight; but when, fatigued with the pursuit, Mohammed was refreshing himself with only five hundred men around him, two thousand Moguls, who lay concealed in a wood, rushed on his small band, and in the unequal contest the gallant prince was slain. Balin much hurt at the loss of his son, appointed Rei Chosro, his grandson, and son of the deceased, to supply his father's place. Balin feeling the approach of death, first nominated his son Rei for his successor, but afterwards having conceived offence at his conduct, he changed the succession in favour

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of his grandson Rei Chosro. On his death, however, Malleck the chief magistrate of Delhi, having been at enmity with the father of Chosro, had influence enough with the Omrahs to persuade them to give the throne to Rei Robad, another grandson of Balin's by his son Rei, and Chosro gladly returned in safety to his government at Lahore. The young emperour was only in his eighteenth year, and having been bred up with strictness under his father's roof, he no

sooner found restraint removed, than he gave the rein to his passions; and his vicious example was quickly followed both in court and city. The nephew of the chief magistrate of Delhi, to whom Rei Robad owed his elevation, named Nizam, was appointed chief secretary of the empire, and got the government into his hands. This man observing the king sunk in pleasures, thought of clearing his own way to the empire. For this end he first procured the assassination of Chosro, and then the disgrace and banishment of Chaja the vizir. He had too all the old servants of Balin assassinated. But when the atrocities of Nizam had made him the terrour of all others without diminishing his influence with the king, advices arrived of another irruption of the Moguls into Lahore; but these being defeated, the next step taken by the traitor was, to inspire the king with jealousy of his Mogul troops, in consequence of which the weak prince ordered their chiefs to be massacred by his guards, and confiscated all their property. But prince Rera, the emperour's father, hearing of these measures, penetrated into the designs of the minister, and admonished his son of the danger. But finding his advice slighted, he assembled a large army, and directed his march towards Delhi. His son met him with another army, but after, by the advice of his favourite, treating his father with great insolence, he was shocked at the effect it had on him, and implored his forgiveness; when peace and friendship were established between them, and each returned to his own dominions. Rei Robad continued his intemperance, until his health being ruined, he called to mind his father's suggestions, and began to consider Nizam as the cause of all his sufferings. But while he was forming plans to get rid of him, and the other plotting to counteract them, the Omrahs dispatched the minister by poison. The king now becoming paralytick, such intrigues were carried on by the Omrahs for the empire, that the friends of the royal family were induced to set Reiomourse, son to the reigning emperour, a child of only three years old, on the throne. On this the army divided itself into factions. The Tartars espoused the cause of the young king, and the Chilligies, a powerfull tribe of Afghans, joined Ferose, who usurped the throne. The sons of this usurper, who were renowned for their valour, seized the infant king, and carried

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him off to their father; and Ferose himself sent an assassin, who in a cruel manner extinguished the little remains of life that were yet left in the emperour Rei Robad. After this horrid deed Ferose ascended the throne, and assumed the title of Jellalul Dien, having put an end
A. D. 1289. to the dynasty of Gaur, and commenced that of Chilligi; and that he might reign more securely, he took care, that the young prince should be destroyed. Ferose at the time of his usurpation was seventy years old. His father was a soldier of fortune, named Malleck; and the Chilligi from which he was descended were a tribe of barbarians, dwelling in the mountains of Gaur and Ghirgistan, on the confines of Persia, who made war their business, and served any body as mercenaries. After he had murdered the young prince, Ferose became remarkable for his humanity and benevolence. But ere he had passed two years on the throne, the nabob of Kurrah allying himself with that of Oud, assumed the ensigns of royalty, and raising a great army advanced towards Delhi. The rebells were soon defeated; but the unmerited pity which, contrary to the advice of his own countrymen, Ferose extended to them, produced most pernicious effects in encouraging offenders. No security could be found in his dominions; the streets and highways were infested by banditti; house-breaking, robbery, murder, and every other species of villany, became a business all over the empire; insurrections were heard of in every province, numerous gangs of robbers stopped all commerce and intercourse, and the nabobs refused or neglected to send any account of their revenues or administration. One of the kinsmen of
A. D. 1291. Hallacu, grandson of Genghiz, and king of Persia, having invaded Hindostan with an hundred thousand Moguls, was, after an obstinate battle, defeated by Ferose, who yet offered them peace, on condition of their evacuating his dominions. The terms were gladly accepted; and when they were retreating, Hallacu joined Ferose with three thousand men, who all became Mahometans, and their chief received one of Ferose's daughters in marriage. The king leaving a large force with his son Arsilla, whom he appointed viceroy of Lahore, Moultan and Sind returned to his capital. While the emperour was quelling an insurrection about a fort called Mindu, his nephew Alla-ul-dien, governour of Rurrah, bordering on the Decan, requested

permission to march against the Hindoos of Belsa, who infested his province. Having obtained it he took Belsa, and having returned with much spoil from the pillage of the country, he sent a portion of it as a present to his uncle; who manifested his approbation of his conduct, by annexing the subadary of Oud to his former government of Rurrah. Upon this Alla informed the king there were some very wealthy princes towards Chinderi, which with his permission he would reduce, and send their spoils to the royal treasury. To this righteous proposal the humane Ferose consented; and Alla, having engaged many chiefs in his service, marched against Ramdeo, prince of the Decan; whom, after operations that did not occupy many days, he compelled to ransom his country, at a sum scarcely credible from the greatness of it. Ferose was much pleased with the news of his nephew's success; but far from participating in the fruits, he was by a course of the most treacherous dissimulation, induced to repair to the camp of Alla, where that wretch had him assassinated, and immediately assumed his authority. On the other hand, the wife of Ferose, who was queen-regent, rashly placed the diadem on the head of her youngest son, Ruckun, Arkilli the eldest being then at Moultan; and she divided the provinces among those of her party. Alla hearing of these transactions at Delhi, determined to advance thither; and having by his liberality (which was such that he amused himself with throwing gold from a sling among the people) brought a multitude of mercenaries into his service, marched to the capital; whence Ruckun being deserted by a great number of Omrahs, retreated with his mother, his haram, and treasure to Moultan; and Alla formally ascended the throne. After which he A. D 1295. dispatched such a force to Moultan, as, assisted by the treachery of the inhabitants of the city of that name, became masters of the person of Arsilla and his brother, who were brought in triumph to Delhi, and there by the orders of the execrable usurper, deprived first of their sight, and then of their lives. A new vizir which Alla appointed in the second year of his reign, excited great disgust by re-demanding all the sums, which the king at his accession had bestowed on the nobility and people. In the mean time, a Mogul army having advanced very rapidly in the provinces about the

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mouths of the Indus, Alla's brother, Elich, met and defeated them, and so raised the reputation of the emperour's arms, as to establish his authority at home, and overawe his foreign enemies. The same commander, and the vizir, Nuscrit, next laid waste Guzerat, and reduced its capital Narwalla; when the last with a part of the army proceeded to Cambay, a rich country and full of merchants, which yielded a prodigious treasure to these insatiable robbers. But quickly after this an army of two hundred thousand Mogul cavalry poured into India, and meeting with none able to withstand them, advanced to Delhi. Terrified at the host of enemies, the inhabitants of the country crowded into the city, where the multitude being so great, famine soon began to rage, which led Alla to decide contrary to the advice of his Omrahs, on an immediate engagement with the enemy, when they were totally defeated, and evacuated India with precipitation. An army which Alla had sent against the Indian prince of Rantampore, having proved unsuccessfull, he took the field himself; but while in it, was treacherously wounded by one of his own followers, and left for dead, while Akit, who headed the insurrection, caused himself to be acknowledged emperour by the army. By some who remained faithfull to him however, Alla was taken care of, and his wounds being bound up, recovered strength sufficient to shew himself to his army, which immediately crowded to him; when the other usurper and assassin fled, was overtaken, and put to death. Alla then proceeded on his expedition to Rantampore, and taking the place by assault after a long siege, put the Indian prince, Amir Deo, his family, and the garrison to the sword, and bestowed all the wealth taken in it, on his brother Elich, whose enjoyment of it was closed by his death in a few months. Alla after having made himself master of Chitor, was obliged to abandon his schemes against the Decan by an irruption of Moguls. This however, being repelled, he applied him to various internal regulations, by which he greatly increased his revenues, and enabled himself to support a larger army. While Alla was thus employed, Ali, one of the grandsons of Genghiz Khan, and Chaja invading Hindostan, were defeated by an army Alla sent against them. The two chiefs with nine thousand of their troops were taken prisoners; and the

former Alla ordered to be thrown under the feet of an elephant, and the latter to be massacred. To revenge the death of those princes, another army of Moguls broke into the western frontier, but were all cut off by Tuglich the viceroy of the Punjab, except three thousand taken prisoners, who were either trodden to death by elephants, or sold for slaves. Ramdeo, king of Deogur, in the Decan, having failed to remit the tribute which he had covenanted to pay, two armies were commanded to advance against that country. One of these after subduing the country of the Mahrattahs, obliged Ramdeo to procure peace by great presents, and payment of allegiance at Delhi; when his own dominions were restored to him, and other territories added to them. The same commander who reduced the country of Ramdeo, Cafoor, was next dispatched to conquer that of Tillingana, the prince of which he reduced to tribute. Three years after this, Alla being informed that there were in the Decan three places, where there were temples very rich in gold and jewels, two generals, Cafoor and Chaja were sent against them. These engaging Bellal Deo, sovereign of the Carnatic, took him captive, and overran his whole country, and prodigious was the spoil in gold and jewels which they found in the temples, or discovered where concealed; and Cafoor on his return presented to his master above an hundred millions sterling in gold. Alla was not saving of the treasure thus brought to him; but his success inflamed his pride. He would not now listen to any advice; yet the empire never flourished more. But when the emperour had carried things in every department to the highest perfection, he resigned the reins of government to the tyrannical Cafoor; thus disgusting the Omrahs, and exciting universal discontent. This treacherous minister having persuaded Alla to let him make another expedition into the Decan, on his return from thence took advantage of the misbehaviour of Chizer, the eldest son of the emperour, to instill into the breast of the latter suspicions of his intentions, and by a long course of wiles and intrigues at last prevailed on Alla to imprison his two sons, Chizer and Shadi and their mother. But dicontents, which had been long smothered, now broke forth. First a general insurrection took place at Guzerat, and the forces sent to repress it were defeated. The

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governour of Chitor assumed independence: while Hirpal Deo, the son-in-law of Ramdeo, excited the Decan to arms. The grief and rage of Alla, at intelligence of these things increased his disorder,

A. D. 1316. and he sunk into the grave; yet not without suspicion of being poisoned by Cafoor. This execrable wretch on the day after Alla's decease, produced to the assembled Omrahs, a spurious will of his; by which his youngest son Omar was appointed his successor, and Cafoor himself regent. The first measure of this regency was to send a person to deprive of their sight the princes Chizer and Shadi. The sultana their mother was more closely confined, and all her wealth seized. Mubarick, Alla's third son, was seized, and some assassins were one night sent to murder him; but his intreaties, and the present of a string of rich jewels which he had about his neck, prevailed on them to abandon their purpose, and this leading to a disclosure of the villany of Cafoor, a conspiracy was quickly formed, his apartment entered, and he assassinated. When day manifested the deed, it gave general satisfaction. Prince Mubarick was released, and the government was put into his hands; but acting at first only as regent, he did not ascend the throne, until he had brought the

A. D. 1317. nobles over to his interest; he then claimed the diadem, deposed his brother, and assumed it, but deprived the poor child of his eyes. Though he affected popularity at the commencement of his reign, he afterwards shewed himself unworthy of the shape of a man. Having in the Decan, taken Hirpaldeo prisoner, he had him flayed alive, and then beheaded. His own two brothers he caused to be murdered; and at length became infamous for every vice that can disgrace the human character. But his favourite general, Chosro, planned, and carried into execution his assassination, and afterwards

A. D. 1321. ascended the throne. But he was himself soon put to death in a general insurrection of the Omrahs, who raised to the throne Tuglick, a prince of Patan descent, who had been governour of Lahore, and was at the head of the conspiracy. After his accession, Tuglick applied himself to regulate both vigorously and salutarily the affairs of the government, then fallen into great disorder, and at the same time took such defensive measures against the Moguls, as secured him from their incursions. In the second year of his reign,

his son Jonah was sent to chastise Liddirdeo, the Indian prince of Arinkil, and in a second attempt (for in the first he lost nearly all his army by a malignant distemper), he succeeded in taking that prince with all his family. Tuglick himself, afterwards led an army towards Bengal, and on his return lost his life, by the fall of a wooden house, hastily raised for his reception. To him succeeded his eldest son Jonah, who assumed the name of Mohammed, and whose generosity on his accession appeared almost boundless. Ere the government of this province was well settled, Siri, a Mogul commander of great fame, and chief of the tribe of Zagatay, invaded Hindostan with a very numerous army; and having subdued the northern provinces, he with wonderfull expedition advanced towards Delhi and invested it, and Mohammed was obliged to ransom himself and his empire at almost the price of it. Relieved from this enemy, he was at leisure to subdue by different generals, many distant provinces, some of which had revolted, and others had never been subdued by the Mahometans. Soon after which he reduced the Carnatic, to the extremities of the Decan, obliging all the rajahs to pay him tribute, by which he replenished the royal treasury. But convulsions soon began, during which all these conquests were wrested from the yoke. The heavy imposts levied, the great number of troops raised, and the massacre of many Mahometans as well as Hindoos, led to those convulsions. A great army which the emperour had raised by the advice of a Mogul chief, under the extravagant hope of reducing both Persia and Tartary, not being paid, dispersed themselves over the empire, and carried pillage and death into every quarter. These calamities comprehend the domestick transactions of many years. To add to them, Mohammed having heard of the great wealth of China, formed a resolution to subdue that empire; for the execution of which, it was necessary previously to conquer the country of Himmatchil, which lies between India and China. This work he assigned to his nephew Chosro, with an army of an hundred thousand cavalry. Though the Omrahs and counsellors of state assured him that the project he had conceived would prove visionary; yet a chain of forts was built extending from the borders of India to those of China. But when Chosro arrived there, an army

A. D. 1325.

more numerous than his own was in readiness to oppose him; by which dismay was added to the sufferings which his troops already felt from a scarcity of provisions. Bending their march towards the foot of the hills, their baggage was there plundered by the mountaineers. Ere they could extricate themselves from this wretched situation the rainy season began, and the whole army fell a prey to famine. The emperour being drawn by war into his southern dominions, was so pleased with the strength and situation of Deogur, that he removed his capital thither, and caused all the inhabitants of Delhi with their effects and cattle to migrate to this favourite city, to which he gave the name of Dowlatabad, or the Fortunate City. Though this change greatly affected the empire, and distracted the minds of the people, yet the emperour's orders were strictly complied with, and the ancient capital left desolate. Mohammed had not been long in the new one, when he heard that Ibah, the viceroy of Moultan, had rebelled; hastening thither a battle took place, Ibah was defeated, taken, and beheaded; and the emperour returned towards Delhi. At the sight of their native country, all in the imperial army who had been compelled to remove to Dowlatabad, began to desert. To prevent the consequences of this Mohammed took up his residence in the city, and continued in it two years; but then he removed all the inhabitants a second time, leaving Delhi again deserted. The weight of taxes about this time imposed, and the severity with which they were exacted, drove the farmers between the Ganges and the Jumna in one day to set fire to their houses, and retire with their families and cattle into the woods. A body of troops were directed to massacre these unhappy people if they resisted, and if they were taken, to put out their eyes. In consequence of this inhuman decree, many populous provinces were laid waste, and remained so for several years. The tyrannies of Mohammed at length equalled, if they did not exceed those of any of the oppressors of the human race. A famine however which prevailed at Delhi, whither he had given the inhabitants who wished it permission to return, affected him so far, that he gave large sums for the encouragement of husbandry, commerce, and all kinds of industry: yet so did the famine rage in the city, that men fed on human flesh. A

revolt of the native princes taking place in the Decan, was attended with success so great, that Mohammed had no possessions remaining in that region except Dowlatabad. Mohammed having determined to reduce it to his obedience, after two years appointed four governours for as many provinces, into which he had divided it, who, to make up the sum which he had appointed they should annually pay into his treasury, miserably plundered the country. At the same time he conferred the government of Malava on a mean fellow named Aziz, and told him, he should endeavour to extirpate the Mogul captains in that country. On which suggestion this prompt instrument of cruelty, assassinated at one entertainment eighty of them with their attendants. For this service he was rewarded with the present of a dress and a fine horse. After this various revolts of the Moguls scattered about the empire took place, and while busied in attempts to repress them, he was seized with a fever in consequence of a surfeit of fish, and died on the banks of the Indus. Upon Mohammed's decease the army fell into great confusion. Some of the Moguls succeeded in partly carrying off the late emperour's treasure. But Ferose, whom he had designed for his successor, and who was nephew to the emperour Tuglick, to prevent further depredations, removed the army, and the day after this movement he yielded to the entreaties of the Omrahs, and ascended the throne. Having taken prisoners many of their chiefs, he compelled the Mogul mercenaries to flee towards their own country; and having by words only repressed an insurrection at Delhi, he repaired to that capital. Three years after this he built the city of Feroseabad; and the following year marching to Debalpoor, he made a canal of an hundred miles long, from the Suttuluz to the Jidger, and this was followed by similar works of great publick advantage. An embassy arriving from Bengal with presents, and new conditions of peace, Ferose accepted them, and that province became in a great measure independent of the empire, rendering only a small annual acknowledgment. No other terms were required of the Decan: so that now the government of Delhi was nearly deprived of these two great members. Ferose after various military exploits, mostly crowned with success, and many years spent in acts of justice

A. D. 1344.

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and beneficence, resigned the government to his son, who assuming the name of Mohammed, ascended the throne. But when from an insurrection of the governour of Guzerat, his strenuous exertions in support of the imperial authority were most wanted, this infatuated prince gave himself totally up to pleasure. Hence a conspiracy was formed against him, and a sanguinary contest took place at Delhi, between the oppugners and the supporters of Mohammed. Ferose was brought forward again, and by the advice of the Omrahs, his grandson by his eldest son Fatte, and whose name was Tuglick, was placed on the throne instead of Mohammed, who had fled. Ferôse
A. D. 1388. himself died at the age of ninety. Tuglick being raised to the empire, having endeavoured in vain to get his uncle Mohammed into his hands, resigned himself a slave to passion, whence vice and oppression began to predominate. A conspiracy was consequently formed against him by his cozen Abu Bicker, who had some reason to fear
A. D. 1389. his resentment, and Tuglick was put to death. Abu Bicker, grandson to the emperour Ferose, by his third son, was immediately raised to the throne, but in less than two years was attacked, defeated, and put to death by the prince Mohammed, supported by the Mogul chiefs of Samana, who solicited him to come from
A. D. 1390. Naugracut, whither he had retired, and attempt the recovery of the empire. The reign of Mohammed was marked only by insurrections which were quelled without any very great difficulty: after having reigned from the time when his father Ferose resigned the government to him six years and a half, he died at a fort which he
A. D. 1392. had built, and named from himself Mohammed-abad. He was succeeded by his son, Humaióon, who being carried off by a violent disorder filled the throne only forty-five days. After strong contests among the great men, they placed on the throne an infant son of the emperour Mohammed, by the name of Mahmud Schah. The minority of this sovereign encouraged the Hindoos to rebell, and the Omrahs to seek their own exaltation. At length Núserit a grandson of the emperour of Ferose was set up in opposition to Mahmud; the provinces then became divided in their allegiance, some espousing the cause of Mahmud, others that of Núserit, and the whole empire fell into a state of anarchy and distraction. In this wretched

situation things continued for three years. At the end of these, Mohammed Jehangire, the grandson of Timur, passed the Indus, and after a long siege got possession of the city of Moultan and its country. At Delhi the emperour Mahmud was treated as a mere puppet, by a chief named Eckbal, in whose hands he was, when advice was received, that Timur had passed the Indus with intention to conquer Hindostan. Nothing withstood the arms of this conquerour, whose success was nearly equalled by his barbarity; and when he arrived before Delhi, being apprized by his officers, that his prisoners were very numerous, and apparently inclined to mutiny should he meet with any check, he ordered one hundred thousand to be massacred. Mahmud and Eckbal accepted Timur's offer of a battle, were defeated, and with great slaughter driven into Delhi; from which city they both fled that night. Timur got possession of the city, and in a very few days, from some cause or other (for different ones are assigned by the different parties), a general massacre took place, and most horrid was the scene exhibited. Having staid fifteen days at Delhi, the conquerour resolved to leave it. Timur pursued his march to the skirts of the mountains of Sewalic, marking his way with fire and sword. Then crossing the Ganges, he subdued the country as high as where the river issues from the mountains. It does not appear that Timur appointed any king over Hindostan; but he confirmed the subahs, who had submitted to him in their governments, and he appointed Chizer viceroy of Moultan, Lahore, and Debalpoor, and then proceeded by way of Cabul to Samarcand. The city of Delhi remained in anarchy for the space of two months, when Núserit took possession of it with only two thousand horse. But Eckbal soon attacked him there, expelled him, and resumed the administration of affairs in the ruined city; the inhabitants who had deserted it, gradually returned, and the place soon assumed an appearance of populousness. The country between the two rivers, and a small district round the city was all that now held of the capital: of this Eckbal soon possessed himself. During the confusion of the empire, the subahs had rendered themselves independent in their own governments, and in many cases styled themselves kings. The emperour Mahmud,

A. D. 1397.

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having resided with Ziffer, the governour of Guzerat, until the year fourteen hundred and one, fled from him, and quickly after by the invitation of Eckbal, returned to Delhi, where he contented himself with a pension, being afraid to interfere in the government. He afterwards however fled from Delhi, but still was placed by Eckbal in the government of Hinnoge. Three years after this the perfidious and cruel Eckbal was slain in a battle against Chizer, to attack whom he marched towards Moultan. On this occurrence Mahmud was recalled to Delhi, and re-assumed the government; but his spiritless behaviour when attacked, lost him the affection of his troops. Yet two years afterwards he marched against one of Chizer's commanders, which brought that chief upon him, who besieged him twice in Delhi, but without success, through the want of food that prevailed in his own camp. Mahmud, however, being
A. D. 1413. seized with a fever, by his death the empire of Delhi fell from the race of the Turks, who were adopted slaves of Mohammed Ghori. Soon after his death the Omrahs elected Dowlat Lodi, a Patan by nation, who being first appointed a private secretary had risen through various employments, until Mahmud invested him with an office similar to that of secretary of state. But short was the honour of this new sovereign. Chizer again advanced, and obliged him to surrender both the citadel in which he had taken refuge, and himself; and soon after he died in confinement. Chizer, who now in fact ascended the throne of Delhi, is said to have been of the race of the impostor Mahomet. His father, Solyman, became the adopted son of Dowlat, a great Omrah, governour of the province of Moultan; on the death of whose son, he was appointed to the viceroyship, which from him descended to Chizer; who, having gained the favour of Timur, was advanced to the government of all the Punjab and Debalpoor. Though Chizer did not hesitate to distribute governments and dignities among his Omrahs, he did not assume the imperial titles, but professed to hold the empire of Sharoch, the son of Timur, that conquerour himself having now been dead for some years. He even sometimes sent tribute to Samarcand. Chizer made some conquests by his vizir, Melleck Joppa, and by another commander, named Zirick, drove to the hills

a tribe of Turks, who had assassinated the governour of Sirhind, and taken possession of his country. The Turks having again attacked Sirhind, Tan their chief was again driven to the hills by Zirick, and at length compelled to pay tribute, and deliver his son as an hostage. After a prosperous reign extended to seven years and four months, and employed in petty wars, Chizer died, leaving behind him the character of a just, generous, and benevolent prince, for that age. A. D. 1421. Mubarick, the deceased emperour's eldest son, by his father's appointment succeeded to the throne. Having received advice of an intention on the part of Jesserit the Gicker, now become powerfull by the defeat and capture of the king of Cashmire, to attempt the throne of Delhi, he marched against the intended usurper, and compelled him to retreat to the mountains. The following year was marked by successes against the Hindoos of Kittar. Revolts and expeditions of little other consequence than to keep the stream of blood and misery continually flowing, employed Mubarick for the space of thirteen years, at the end of which he was assassinated by a A. D. 1433. band of conspirators, which his vizir had got together, and Mahommed, a grandson of the emperour Chizer, was raised to the throne. The vizir, who had so ungratefully assassinated his master, endeavoured by his distribution of offices and power to establish himself. But the adherents of the late king were numerous and powerfull, and determined to revenge his death. During the hostilities which then ensued, Mahommed fearing he should be involved in the ruin of the vizir, had resolved to leave or destroy him. But the latter, perceiving his design, made an attempt to assassinate him also; but fell himself in it, and by the deputy vizir, Kummal, joined with other Omrahs, his party was subdued, and their conquerours swore allegiance to Mahommed a second time. Scarcely had this monarch been three years on the throne, when he resigned himself entirely to pleasure. This soon gave birth to disorders and dissatisfaction in the state. Under these the king behaved with a pusillanimity, which induced the governours of the provinces to try to secure their own independence; while the general confusion encouraged the zemindars to withhold their rents. Beloli Lodi, governour of Sirhind, having become very powerfull; Mahommed employed him to oppose

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Mahmud Chilligi, king of Malava, who advanced towards Delhi, and by the defeat of this king, Beloli increased his own power so much as to encourage him to attack Mahommed himself, and besiege Delhi. But in this he did not succeed. That weak monarch however did not long survive this attempt against his crown; but
A. D. 1447. died after a reign of twelve years, leaving to his son, Alla the second, the empire of Delhi, which was at that time far from being so extensive as before the invasion of Timur. Mahometan princes possessed the south-east provinces, and a kind of empire had been for some time established in the Decan independent of the crown of Delhi. Alla proved a weak and luxurious prince, who after having exhibited his imbecility for seven years on the throne, was supplanted by Beloli, and reduced to the possession of the government of
A. D. 1454. Budaoon, in which he continued nearly twenty-eight years. Beloli was an Afghan of the tribe of Lodi. When possessed of the throne of Delhi he enlarged his dominions by various conquests, but his principal wars were with the king of the eastern provinces. Having driven Hassan from the throne of Jionpoor, he placed Barbac one of his own sons on it. In his old age he divided his dominions among his sons; but to one of them of the name of Nizam, he gave Delhi, and several countries between the two rivers, with the imperial
A. D. 1488. dignity, and died himself after a reign of upwards of thirty years. His son Nizam, who had assumed the name of Secunder, ascended the throne, overcoming the opposition made to him. His reign was prosperous; he not only added to his territories, but enlarged the influence of his religion. Under his reign Agra became a city of
A. D. 1516. imperial residence, and twenty-eight years did he sit on the throne. Secunder was succeeded by his son Ibrahim, whose pride and arrogance occasioned a conspiracy to deprive him of some of his dominions, by placing his brother Jellal on the throne of Jionpoor; but this at length terminated in the death of Jellal. Such however was the conduct of Ibrahim, that his enemies increased; and Baber, the Mogul sovereign of Cabul, was solicited to undertake the conquest of Hindostan. This prince was descended from Timur Beg, and soon discovered extraordinary abilities, and succeeded his father Amer, king of Indija and Firghana at a very early age. After

various turns of fortune, in which he had exhibited great enterprize, much courage and resolution, and no small ambition, he began to view the situation of Ibrahim as inviting him to attempt the establishment of himself in India, and he accordingly made an irruption as far as Berah in the Punjab. Twice did he repeat his invasion, and was invited to a fourth by Dowlat Lodi, governour of Lahore, who was apprehensive of the emperour Ibrahim's intentions against himself. Accepting the invitation, Baber advanced to Lahore, made himself master of that city, and proceeded onward. But the situation of affairs not permitting him to reach Delhi that year, he returned to his usual residence Cabul. In the mean time Ibrahim was engaged with the domestick enemies which he had raised against himself, and having defeated his brother Alla, this news roused Baber from the dream of indolence and luxury into which he had fallen, and drew him the fifth time into Hindostan. In this expedition experiencing repeatedly the inferiority of the Indian troops, Baber determined to make his projected attempt on that empire, and consequently, though vastly inferior in numbers, having only thirteen thousand to encounter an hundred thousand troops, came to an engagement with Ibrahim, in which this monarch was slain, and his army totally defeated. Baber delayed not to pursue his victory; his son Humaioon he dispatched to take possession of Agra; and he himself followed the party which he sent to Delhi. Thus the empire of Hindostan was transferred from the Patan dynasty to that of the Moguls; and on the ease with which the former was overthrown, my author remarks in words very worthy of attention in our own land, "This is the general tendency of wealth in all governments, if the reins are not held fast, the laws punctually executed, and the progress of corruption checked both by private and publick economy." The Patans however still refused to submit. Several of their chiefs united, and at length an army of an hundred thousand horse was brought into the field, but met and defeated by the dauntless Baber. After a number of victories over various chiefs, all tending to establish his authority, Baber fell sick and died, A. D. 1530. and in him fell one of the greatest usurpers of the throne of Hindostan. The prince Humaioon, the son of Baber, immediately

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succeeded him. For eleven years did this prince encounter a variety of difficulties and misfortunes, experiencing almost every thing that envy and treachery could do against him, and at length was compelled to abandon his dominions, and take refuge in Persia, principally by the power of Shere, an Afghan, who had gradually raised himself to a great height, and at length assumed the imperial title. This new usurper having driven Humaioon out of India, continued to subdue all that would not acknowledge his authority; until at the siege of Callinger, he was so burnt by the effects of a
A. D. 1545. shell, that he died in the evening of the same day. His eldest son, Adil, being at a considerable distance when Shere was killed, the Omrahs, who were more attached to his younger Jellal, under pretence of the necessity of immediately filling the throne, placed the last prince on it, who assumed the title of Islam Shah, by a vicious pronunciation converted into Selim, by which name he is more generally known. His brother Adil was prevailed on, after assurances of safety from Selim, to resign to him his claim to the throne, and was himself invested with the province of Biana. But in a short time the faithless Selim would have made him a prisoner, had not an Omrah, named Chawass, who had pledged his word for his safety, taken the part of the unhappy prince; yet in the hostilities which then took place the base Selim was successfull; Adil was put to flight, and never heard of more, and all his followers vanquished, except Chawass, of whom Selim at length got rid by assassination.
A. D. 1552. Not long after which he was seized by the disease that put an end to his life. On Selim's decease his son Ferose, only twelve years of age was raised to the throne, but in the space of three days was assassinated by his own maternal uncle, Mubarick, who usurping the empire, assumed the title of Mahommed Adil. This execrable villain, however, was the very next year driven by Ibrahim Soor, who had married his sister, from Delhi and Agra, and obliged to content himself with the eastern provinces, while Ibrahim ascended the throne at Delhi. A confused scene of contention for the empire now ensued; in the Punjab, Ahmet, brother-in-law to the expelled emperour assumed the title of Secunder Shah, defeated Ibrahim, and obtained a temporary possession of Agra and Delhi, but was

quickly obliged to return to the Punjab, to oppose Humaioon advancing to recover his dominions. Ibrahim was again defeated, and fell into a course of adversity, under which he at length perished. Another Mahommed asserted independence in Bengal, and though he was by the forces of his namesake slain, his son raised an army, assumed the title of sultan Bahadar, defeated Mahommed and slew him. In the mean time Secunder was defeated by Humaioon, and fled towards the mountains of Sewalic. For Humaioon himself, by the assistance of the Persian emperour, recovered the kingdom of Cabul, and was now advancing with the hope of having similar success as to the empire of Hindostan, and this victory secured it to him, and he entered Delhi in triumph; but within a few months after A. D. 1554. his return, he was by accidentally falling down some steps fatally hurt, and died at the end of four days. When the news of his father's death reached Cullanore, where Ackbar the son of Humaioon then was, the Omrahs then present raised him to the throne, though only in his fourteenth year, and on his accession the whole civil and military power of the empire was entrusted to the administration of Byram, his own tutor, and father's most faithfull and usefull servant. Ackbar at first experienced some difficulties from the hostilities of Mahommed, who strove to recover the western provinces over which he once ruled, but the vigour of Byram's measures overcame them. Still that minister acted with such haughty inflexibility as gradually estranged from him the affection of Ackbar, who at the persuasion of his courtiers, when about seventeen years of age, dismissed Byram from the regency, and took the administration of affairs on himself. The dismissed minister afterwards embarked in unsuccessfull rebellion, but was reconciled to his sovereign, and having engaged in a pilgrimage to Mecca, was assassinated on his journey. Ackbar applying himself with vigour to the government of his dominions, exhibited activity, incessant and dauntless courage, and passed his whole reign in either reducing the rebellious, or extending the bounds of his empire, which at the period of his decease he left very widely enlarged; having conquered Guzerat the capital, and a A. D. 1605. considerable part of the Decan, Bengal, Orissa, and Oude. This monarch, whose clemency, though at times carried too far, added to

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his other virtues made him a great man, was succeeded by his son Selim, who assumed the pompous title of Jehangire, or Lord of the World; but by no means equalled his father in ability, yet reigned with more success and reputation than could have been expected,
A. D. 1627. for twenty-two years and some months. On his death his third son, Kurrum ascended the throne at Agra, and under the title of Schah Jehan or King of the World, sat on it above thirty-two years; and was at length deposed by his own third son, the celebrated
A. D. 1628. Aurengzebe. This conquerour taking the name of Allumgire, and having prevailed over his brothers in their contest for the crown, reigned until the year seventeen hundred and seven, and died at a very advanced age. To him succeeded his own second son under
A. D. 1712. the title of Bahadar Schah; who dying after a short reign of nearly five years, left his throne to his own eldest son, Moazul Dien, with the title of Jehandar Schah. The reign of this monarch endured only eighteen months, when the crown descended to his nephew, Firarochsere, who after four years reign was blinded and murdered by the two Seids, who raised to the throne Raffeith-ul-Dirjat, son of Raffeith-ul-Schah, second son of the emperour Bahadar Schah, and after a nominal reign of three months was put to death by the same faction. His brother Raffeith-ul-dowlat succeeded him, but died in a few days. Another grandson of Bahadar Schah by his son Jehan, named Mahommed, then ascended the throne, and was happy enough to get rid of the two Seids, Abdalla and Hussen, who had so long tyrannized in the court. But most of the Omrahs during the distractions occasioned by their ambition, formed schemes of independence in their respective provinces, holding in contempt the weakness of the regal authority. An Omrah called Cuttulich Chan, who was governour-general of the Decan, maintained a large standing army under pretence of keeping in awe the unsubdued Indian princes, and the Mahratta chiefs; and with this he extended his own power by reducing the neighbouring Indian princes to the Mogul yoke, but remitted no part of the increase of his revenues to Delhi. While he permitted the Mahrattas to ravage the interior provinces; and the weak Mahommed instead of checking the insolence of these marauders submitted to pay them a fourth part of

the revenues of the provinces which they had overrun. Still they continued their inroads, nor did the captain-general of the empire, Chan Dowran, who engrossed all the ministerial power, like to leave the court to repress them, fearing he might lose his influence over Mahommed, whom he could not persuade to take the field. But Sadit Chan, governour of Oud, gave them a total defeat. After which the Nizam, a title given to the governour of the Decan, repairing to court, formed with the vizir and Sadit a party for depriving Dowran of the power he had acquired; but finding they could neither lessen his influence over Mahommed, or detach the army from him, the Nizam and Sadit formed a plan, which gave the last stroke to the tottering authority of the crown. The conspirators determined to invite Nadir Schah, king of Persia, at that time in Candahar, into India. They wrote to him, and afterwards replied to the difficulties which he had started; when Nadir yielded to their arguments, and proceeded to that invasion, which has been already related in the history of Persia. Here therefore it is sufficient to say, that when Dowran, who at first affected to look with contempt on the report of Nadir's invasion, found that the Persians were really approaching, he took the field with Mahommed, and the two traitors, the vizir and the Nizam. So well did those Moguls who remained faithfull to their sovereign conduct themselves, when they came to battle, that had it not been for the treachery of Sadit and the death of Dowran, who quickly died of a wound he received, Nadir would probably have been compelled to evacuate India. But on the decease of the captain-general, the command, of the Mogul army devolving on the Nizam, he entered into a treaty with Nadir; but while the conclusion of this was impeded by the intrigues of Sadit, who had permitted himself to be taken by the Persians, Mahommed being informed that these traitors were making separate bargains for the sale of himself and his empire, suddenly resolved to throw himself on the mercy of Nadir; apprized him of his intentions, and went to the Persian camp; where he was received with civility, and permitted to return, after having received a notification, that the expences of Nadir's expedition must be paid, and the Persian army be accommodated in Delhi, until the money should be raised. Yet

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on returning a second time to Nadir's camp, he was with external marks of honour detained, and the Schah having got the Nizam and all the principal Mogul Omrahs into his power, entered their camp itself, and seized the ordnance, military chest, jewel office, wardrobe and armoury. Having secured this plunder, he advanced with his prisoners to Delhi, where he reproached the Nizam and Sadit with their villainy, and drove them from his presence after a manner the most disgracefull. Both these wretches protesting that they would not survive their disgrace, the former overreached the last, and by the appearance of having done the same, prevailed on him to take a draught of poison. Though Nadir entered Delhi peaceably, a disturbance soon arising a shocking massacre ensued of the inhabitants, neither was it stopped, until about an hundred thousand were slain. Nadir then turned his attention to pillage, and such was the extent of it, that he is said to have carried off from Hindostan eighty millions sterling, at no less than twelve of which the Mogul throne alone was estimated. Ere Nadir set off on his return, he reinstated Mahommed in the empire with great solemnity, and gave him a caution against the Nizam. But he obliged him to cede to him all the countries of his empire that lay to the north-west of the Indus. And in his return the fierce Nadir burnt all the towns and villages in his way to Lahore. After the departure of the Persian army the Nizam assumed every thing of the king but the name. Mahommed having suffered himself to be divested of his power in his capital, the nabobs and Indian princes throughout the empire paid little attention to orders from the court, and actually possessed regal authority in their governments. The Mahrattas having made great progress towards establishing the ancient Hindoo government in India, made an incursion into the Carnatic with eighty thousand horse, and after raising heavy contributions from that province, were promised for evacuating it, an hundred thousand lacks of rupees, and put in
A. D. 1740. possession of the territory of Trichinopoly as a security for the payment of that sum. Although what passed in the Carnatic was for some time not noticed at Delhi, the Nizam at length left the court, and marched with an army of near three hundred thousand men, and without drawing a sword settled the affairs of the Carnatic.

And then disposing of the provinces of the Decan as he thought proper, he acted as sovereign of the country, while his son, Ghazi-ul-Dien, overawed the emperour at Delhi. In the mean time Aliverdi Chan, who with his brother Hamed, had come as a common soldier from Tartary to Delhi, in quest of service, usurped the government of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, and having delivered those provinces from some incursions of the Mahrattas, he became independent sovereign of them, though to keep the people quiet he forged grants from the court. A Pattan of the Rohilla tribe, named Ali Mahommed, having come to Delhi with about three hundred of his own countrymen, entered into the imperial service, obtained the command of a small district between Delhi and Lahore, and by taking into his pay all the vagrants of his own clan that came down from the mountains, enabled himself to oppose even the emperour himself, when he came to force from him payment of his rents and submission. But when Mahommed had reduced and imprisoned him, he with his accustomed imbecility, suffered himself to be prevailed on by the Pattan chiefs, who were privately enemies to the Mogul government, to set him at liberty, and entrust him with the district of Sirhind; when he collected his dispersed tribe, and kept possession of several districts between the rivers, and beyond the Ganges, without remitting a single rupee. While Ali was thus assuming independence, an adventurer named Abdalla, who on Nadir Schah's death had carried off some of his treasure to the mountains of Afghanistan, and by means of it levied an army, possessed himself by degrees of the districts of the mountains of Herat, part of Chorassan, and all the provinces ceded by Mahommed to the king of Persia; and perceiving the declining state of the Mogul government, crossed the Nilab, and advanced towards Delhi, with fifty thousand horse; but after much fighting, in which the emperour's son, Ahmed, manifested great courage, he was obliged to retreat towards Lahore; but the pursuit of him was prevented by the death of the emperour Mahommed, who died in a fit as he sat on his throne. In the course of a few days his son Ahmed Schah, ascended the throne, and the old vizir Kimmir, having been slain in the war with Abdalla, the young emperour, appointed Seifdar Jung, the

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subah of Oud, to fill his place. The war with Abdalla was carried on with various success in the Punjab by Munnu, the son of the late vizir; and in the mean time advice arrived of the death of the Nizam, in his hundred and fourth year, and his second son, Nasir Jung, succeeded to the government of the Decan. The vizir having been defeated by a body of rebellious Pattans, the weakness of the empire thus betrayed, encouraged the Jates, a numerous tribe of Hindoos possessing an extensive territory near Agra, and the Rohillas, a Pattan nation, inhabiting the greater part of the country between Delhi and Lucknow, to throw off their allegiance; and while these things were going on, the emperour was entirely governed by his mother, who was equally ruled by the chief of the eunuchs; but this favourite of the queen was removed by the vizir, whose cause he had supported, with poison. Ahmed Schah too slightly punishing this offence, deprived the vizir of his office, and banished him from the court. The perfidious wretch then embarked in rebellion, and with the assistance of the Jates besieged his sovereign in Delhi. The son of the former vizir, Kimmir-ul-Dien, was now raised to the same dignity, and the captain-general, Ghazi, not only defended the city, but gained a complete victory over the rebells. But all good effects of this and subsequent success were obviated by Ahmed's weakness, in suffering his new vizir so to prejudice him against Ghazi, that the plans he was pursuing against him drove that officer into rebellion; and Ahmed being compelled to surrender himself to him was deprived of his sight. Under this monarch's reign the power and extent of the empire were much diminished. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars. Villainy was practised under every form. The bonds of private friendship, as well as those of publick society were broken, and each individual relied only on the strength of his own arm. Ghazi having dethroned Ahmed, released from confinement Eaz-ul-Dien, the grandson of Bahadur Schah, by his son Moaz-ul-Dien, and placed him on the throne, by the name of Allumghire the second. Ghazi himself took the office of vizir; but Allumghire without capacity to direct the government himself, and with that littleness of mind which is often found in weak persons, thwarted the measures of his minister, merely

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because they were his. In the mean time by the death of Munnu, who had recovered from Abdalla the whole of Lahore, that province was again lost; nor from the state of the factions in the court, did the attempts made to wrest it from Abdalla succeed. On the contrary, Allumghire having been confined in the citadel of Delhi by his vizir, now hesitating at no measure to retain his power, adopted the strange scheme of privately inviting Abdalla to advance with an army to his release. The invitation was accepted, Abdalla advanced to Delhi, and the vizir, being deserted by his friends, was obliged to throw himself on the clemency of the Persian, and by his address so far obtained his friendship, that after being at first dismissed, he was restored to his office. Abdalla remained two months in Delhi, disposing of every thing as a sovereign, and when he evacuated the city, he took Allumghire's brother as an hostage for his future good behaviour. After having laid fruitless siege to the city of Agra, and ravaged the territories of the Jates, Abdalla was recalled to the defence of his own territories, against some incursions from the Western Persia. He being departed, the vizir Ghazi became more cruel and oppressive than ever, keeping the king and his eldest son, Ali Gohar, prisoners. The latter however escaped once, and being induced by the insidious promises of the vizir to return, was again confined; but bravely cutting his way through the troops which surrounded him, he finally made his way to Secundra, where Nigib-ul-Dowla, who had betrayed Ghazi to Abdalla, resided. This last having settled his affairs at home, again marched into the environs of Delhi. Here Allumghire applied to him for relief, a step which cost him his life; Ghazi, to obviate any intrigues against himself, having him assassinated. He then placed on the throne another prince of the blood, by the name Schah Jehan, but yet was obliged to come to terms with Abdalla. The city of Delhi was now laid under contributions so heavy, that the inhabitants in despair took to arms, on which the Persian ordered a general massacre, which endured incessantly for seven days; and was then stopped only by Abdalla's soldiers being unable to bear the stench of the dead bodies. A great part of the buildings were at the same time reduced to ashes, and many thousands who had escaped the sword,

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suffered by famine a lingering death, sitting on the smoking ruins of their houses. The Mahrattas, who incessantly traversed the empire for plunder, advancing to partake of the spoils of Delhi, were defeated by Abdalla. But another numerous army of them, coming from the Decan, with the express purpose of re-establishing the ancient Hindoo government, all the Mahometan powers of Hindostan united with Abdalla to oppose them; but so numerous were his enemies, that that chief thought proper to evacuate Delhi, which the Mahrattas entered, and produced a scene of misery, which the reader must excuse me from detailing. Ghazi finding, that Abdalla was now become his enemy, after vainly endeavouring to form a party with the Mahrattas, retired into the country of the Jates, and thus ended his political life. The Mahrattas on entering Delhi, confined Schah Jehan, and to please some of their Mahometan

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allies, raised to the throne Jewan Bucht, eldest son of prince Ali Gohar, who had in Behar assumed the title of Schah Allum. But the young king had no subjects to command. Abdalla afterwards came to another engagement with the Mahrattas, in which they were defeated with great slaughter. After which, Schah Allum having declined putting himself into his power, and affairs on the side of Persia requiring his presence, he confirmed Jewan Bucht on the throne of Delhi, under the tuition of Nigib-ul-Dowla, who notwithstanding repeated attacks made on him, maintained his ground at Delhi, until the period at which this abridgement terminates.

History of the eastern peninsula of India.

Of the eastern peninsula of India no notice has yet been taken. It is bounded on the north by part of Tibet and China; on the east by Tong-king, and the Gulf of Cochin China; on the south by the Gulf of Siam, and the Straits of Sunda; and on the west by the Bay of Bengal, and the river called the great Bramaputren. It lies between the first and twenty-seventh degrees of north latitude, and the ninetieth and one-hundred-and-tenth of east longitude from Greenwich; but is in some parts very narrow. It is a region in general abounding in fruits, silk, elephants, metals, drugs, corn, pepper, and oil. It is rich too in gold and precious stones. The northern part of this country, like so many others whose history we have reviewed, was in earlier ages divided among a great number of petty sove-

reigns, of whom the weaker were in time subdued by the stronger: so that at present the states contained in it may be reduced to ten; Assam, Tipra, Arrakan, Pegu, Ava, Laos, Siam, Camboja, Cochin China, and Tong-king. Of these countries the inland parts are but little known. But travellers have observed, that the inhabitants of most of them resemble the Chinese in features, as well as agree with them in customs and religion. The idolatry of Budha, who seems to be worshipped in the various regions of China, Japan, Tong-king, and Tibet, under different appellations, is spread over great part of Tartary and the oriental islands, as well as over the peninsula now under consideration. The kingdom of Assam having on the north the mountains of Tibet, on the south Tipra and Ava, is said to be of great extent from east to west, though from north to south not more than two days journey. The present capital is said to be Kenneroof or Kemmeroof. The soil of this kingdom produces all the necessaries of life; in it are found mines of gold, silver, iron and lead: all these belong to the sovereign, who therefore requires no taxes of his people. These live at ease, with each his house and an elephant to carry his wives, of which he is allowed to marry four. With great plenty of provisions, they give the preference to dog's flesh; and having excellent vines, they dry the grapes to make brandy instead of wine. Whether the people of Assam were the inventors of them or not, they have long had the use of cannon and gunpowder; the last of which they have very strong. The kingdom of Tipra lies on the south of Assam. This kingdom was formerly of no inconsiderable strength; but has been made and appears to continue subject to that of Arrakan. It has little to invite foreign merchants; a mine of very impure gold, and some very coarse silk; from which two commodities arose the whole revenue of the sovereign. Arrakan or Arakan, called by some Orrakan, by others Rakan, Rakam, and Rame, is situate to the south of Tipra, and has on the east the kingdoms of Ava and Pegu, on the west Bengal and its gulf. It is in length about five hundred and eighty miles, and in its greatest breadth two hundred and ten miles, gradually decreasing to its southern boundary; where it measures but a few miles across. The sea coast is but little inhabited, on account of the multitude of wild

elephants, buffaloes, and tigers; on it there are many islands. The country is fertile, yet though in so warm a latitude, when the north-east wind blows, it sometimes freezes so severely, that all kinds of oils are cut with knives. The kingdom of Arrakan is said to comprise twelve smaller kingdoms, which are always governed by those who have the titles of kings. The cities, towns, and villages of this country are very numerous and populous. Its capital, Arrakan, is fifteen miles in compass, and surrounded with steep and craggy hills, which serve for walls, and are artificially made to resemble a fortification. The outlets are hewn through the rocks; and it has a castle of strength nearly incredible. The riches of the royal palace are so great as to be scarcely estimable. The people of Arrakan take measures as soon as their children are born to give them a broad flat forehead; their nostrils are large and open, their eyes small but quick, and their ears reach down to their shoulders. Their diet is plentifull, but loathsome, as they mix with their choicest dishes, rats, mice, serpents, and other disgusting animals, and never eat fish until in a state of corruption. The people are very superstitious; their idols are very numerous, both publick and domestick; to whom they offer victuals every day, and they clothe them all in winter, that they may not catch cold. The first account of the affairs of Arracan is, that about the year fifteen hundred and fifty-nine, the king of Pegu sought to subdue that kingdom, which induced the king of it to invite the commander of a Portuguese squadron to assist him, and thus the purpose of his enemy was frustrated. When the power of Pegu had greatly declined, a coalition being formed against that kingdom by the king of Arracan and several neighbouring kings, the former, then Shilimi Schah, obtained possession of Pegu, and put the tyrant of it to death. He then delivered to Philip de Brito, the Portuguese, the port of Siriam, which that ungratefull villain fortified against his benefactor; and at length set up for emperour of Pegu himself. Against the Portuguese a long course of hostilities then ensued, who at length went over to the Moguls in Bengal, who with their assistance attacked the kingdom of Arracan about the year sixteen hundred and sixty-seven, but failed in recovering those treasures which were the object of Brito's expedition, and which the

priests of Arracan had contrived to get dedicated to an idol: in whose temple it continued until the succession of the throne of Arracan being disputed, it was removed to a place known only to the priests; while the rival pretenders to the throne fought so furiously, that they and their families were cut off in the course of a year, and the kingdom was involved in anarchy. The kingdom of A. D. 1690. Pegu, properly so called, is bounded on the north by those of Arracan and Ava; on the east by the upper and lower Siam, and the sea, and on the west by the sea and part of Arrakan; extending about three and fifty English miles in length from south to north, and nearly the same in breadth from east to west. Pegu appears to be level country, except in its inland frontiers. Its largest river is that of the same name, and which seems to rise from the mountains which form that border of China. The annual inundations of this stream extend above thirty leagues beyond its channel, and enrich the land to a very great degree. The air of this country is salubrious, the soil fertile, and produces good timber of various kinds. The country abounds with quadrupeds; poultry is plentifull; and there are many sorts of fish. There are in it mines of iron, tin, and lead, and of rubies, diamonds, and sapphires. Something more than two centuries ago the city of Pegu was one of the most splendid, large, and populous of all Asia; but after the king of Tangu stript it of its wealth, it ceased to be the royal residence, and fell to decay; still the viceroy keeps his court there, Pegu being now subject to Ava. The inhabitants of Pegu consist of natives and Barmas, by many called Bramas, who conquered them, and are masters of the country, and distinguished by both their features and their dress. The accounts of both their persons and their characters differ widely. The kingdom of Pegu was founded nearly twelve centuries ago, and so greatly did its first princes enlarge their dominions, that in the year fifteen hundred and nineteen, nine kingdoms are said to have been in subjection to that crown, which was then worn by a monarch named Bressagukan, who was murdered by some labourers A. D. 1539. furnished him by the king of the Barmas; whose dominions lie in the highlands of Pangavirau, encompassing the kingdom of Pegu. This murder of their sovereign threw the people of Pegu into

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confusion; they divided themselves into factions, and began rebellions in several parts of the empire, so that the heir to the crown, Dacha Rupi, could not maintain his authority; and Para Mandara, king of the Barmas seizing the opportunity invaded and subdued Pegu: after the conquest of which, he turned his arms against the kingdoms tributary to it, and on the reduction of one of them in particular, named Martavan, manifested cruelty so ferocious, that even his own army mutinied against him. Yet this did not prevent his repeating similar acts in other places. The other transactions of this king handed down by the Portuguese writers, bear marks of forgery, so strong that the reader must not be detained with them. It is sufficient to say, that he was at length assassinated. In the mean time a near relation of the former monarch of Pegu, named Shorimpam Shay, was by the people proclaimed king, under the title of Shemindoo. As soon as he was invested with this authority, he cut in pieces fifteen thousand Barmas, and seized the treasure, and so agreeable was this change to the people, that in three-and-twenty days time, all the fortresses in Pegu fell into the hands of Semindoo: and after

A. D. 1551. some struggles he got possession of the throne. But in two years he was again dethroned by the Barmas, whose chief having seized the crown, on getting Shemindoo into his hands, put him to death after a cruel manner. The new king, the second of the Barma nation, proved a very successfull warrior, and is said by his conquests to have rendered Pegu the most powerfull monarchy of Asia except China. His expedition against Siam, which kingdom he conquered, is said to have been undertaken for the sake of a white elephant, which the king of Siam declined parting with on any terms; and when by the reduction of Siam the king of Pegu obtained possession of it, he deemed the acquisition so important, that he added to his titles, that of the king of the White Elephant. This monarch, whose name was Chaumigrám or Mandaragri, is said to have built the new city

A. D. 1583. of Pegu, and to have reigned thirty years. He was succeeded by his son, who on finding that the king of Ava refused to render him homage, and suspecting that the nobility of Pegu were in his interest, had several of them burnt alive with their wives and families. After which he quickly assembled an army with which he met the king of

Ava, with whom he personally fought, and slew him. He then sent a body of troops to the city of Ava, who razed it, and led the inhabitants captive. Pranjinoko, for that was this monarch's name, was soon afterwards engaged in a war with the king of Siam, in attempting to conquer whose dominions, he lost a great number of men, and one of his own sons. By his preparations to revenge this loss, he so oppressed the inhabitants of Pegu, that rebellions took place in several provinces. These Pranjinoko endeavoured to suppress by the most cruel inflictions. Yet one of his own sons rose in arms against him. Of these distractions the king of Siam taking advantage invaded Pegu, but was not able to take its capital. Famine, however, rendered it almost desolate, and so great were the various calamities which prevailed in the kingdom, that it was reduced to one city, and that nearly destroyed. When the kings of Arracan and Tangu, as before stated, took it. Pranjinoko himself died at the age of sixty-six. After the death of this king, Pegu was A. D. 1599. annexed to the crown of Arracan, and seems to have continued so, untill it fell into the hands of the king of Ava, and the royal residence continued in the latter city. Little is known of the empire of Ava: its extent is great; but writers agree not well on its boundaries. But in general it has on the west part of the gulf of Bengal, and the kingdoms of Arracan and Assam; on the north the mountains which divide it from Tibet and China; on the east the country of Laos; and on the south the kingdom of Siam, and the gulf of Bengal. Its length from north to south is about seven hundred and sixty miles, and its breadth five hundred and seventy. The country is generally flat, and all fertile. Ava, its capital, consists of high wooden houses; the streets are straight, and planted with trees on each side; it has a great trade in musk and jewels. The government is arbitrary; yet the laws are well administered for the protection of the good subject, and the punishment of the wicked. It is the custom of the king to pay great attention to publick affairs, but his titles are ridiculously vain-glorious; and so are the ceremonies of his court. Very inconsiderable are the materials for the history of this country handed down to us. In the fifteenth century it was an independent monarchy of flourishing condition. Near the middle of the sixteenth the Barma

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king, Para Mandara, made un unsuccessfull attempt on the capital of Ava; but his successor, Chaumigrem, appears to have subdued the country. On his death the king of Ava, who was his brother, refused obedience to his nephew, and being slain by him in single combat, Ava remained in subjection to the crown of Pegu, until that monarchy was overthrown, and the king of Arracan took possession of Pegu; and it seems highly probable, that Ava then became independent. The sovereign was a Barma, and a prince of courage, and began to extend his dominions. The king of Arracan seems to have relinquished to him Pegu. This prince removed the imperial residence from Ava to Pegu; and that city beginning to flourish again after its late desolation, some English found him there. In sixteen hundred and forty-seven this monarch died. His successor was hated by his subjects. Now pass we to the country of Laos, Lao or Lawhos, on some maps marked only as Leng, which taken in its most extensive sense, is bounded on the west by Ava and Siam; on the north by part of China; on the east by Tong-king; and on the south by Camboja. It is surrounded on all sides by mountains covered with forests, which serve as ramparts to secure it, and break the force of the torrents which pour from the hills into the plains. The country itself seems to be generally flat; and it may be considered as divided into the northern and proper Lao, and the southern or kingdom of Lanjang. This last takes its denomination from the elephants with which it abounds, and is larger than the other. Its climate is remarkably healthfull; men of an hundred or hundred and twenty years of age, are said still to retain the usual vigour of fifty. The soil is generally good; but a great difference is observable in the soil on the opposite sides of the river, which divides the country. The lands on the eastern are much more fertile than those on the western side; while the animals which feed on it are larger. The northern Lao in soil and produce is much the same as Lanjang. The people of both divisions resemble the Chinese in their shape and mien. They are fond of strangers, and are of great integrity; and though inclined strongly to desire what they see, never attempt to possess themselves of it by fraud or force. They are not expert in the use of arms, but are used to repel invasion by poisoning their

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streams. Averse from business, agriculture and fishing are their principal pursuits: hence the arts and sciences are neglected by them. They are indolent, superstitious, and addicted to venery. Ere they were corrupted by the idolatry of other nations, the worship of images was unknown to them. The open sky was their temple; and they adored one Supreme Being, under the name of Commander. But now they have imbibed from their neighbours the grossest fables, and hold the greatest absurdities. The country is divided among several kings; but of them, except the sovereign of Lanjang, little has been brought to Europe. He is an absolute independent prince, and disposes at pleasure of the effects of his subjects. There is no nobility; all honours depend on, and endure only during the king's pleasure. This monarch is very haughty, and will not yield the superiority even to the emperour of China. He shews himself to his subjects but twice a year. The Lanjans were many centuries ago in subjection to China, as were all the countries in the eastern peninsula of India; but after they had shaken off that yoke, they formed themselves into a kind of republick, which continued until the end of the sixth century of the Christian æra, when their state became a monarchy. Towards the end of the sixteenth, or the beginning of the seventeenth century, the king of Ava made himself master of all Lao, whose inhabitants he carried to Pegu; but these afterwards rising in a general conspiracy, returned to their native country, and expelled their enemies; after which their capital Lanjang, soon recovered its former splendour under a legitimate monarch. Neither did the king of Ava and Pegu succeed in his purpose of reducing that kingdom under his yoke. The kingdom of Siam is surrounded by high mountains, which separate it on the east from the kingdoms of Laos and Camboja; on the west from Pegu; on the north from Ava; and on the south it is bounded by the gulf of Siam, and peninsula of Malacca. It is about eight hundred and thirty miles in length from north to south, and at its greatest breadth about four hundred miles; but towards the north it is much narrower. It is little else than one extended plain, with a great river and its branches running through it from north to south. The principal stream is called Menam or Meynam, that is, the Mother of

Waters. The uncultivated land in Siam is much greater in quantity than the cultivated; but the woods which cover the former, contain not only fine timber, but trees precious for their produce, as the cinnamon tree, dyeing woods, and the like. The Siamese divide the year into three seasons, winter which occupies the two months of December and January; little summer, composed of the three subsequent months, and great summer formed by the other seven. The winter is dry; the part of the summer, while the sun is vertical, as by the wisdom and goodness of the Divine Providence in all tropical climates, rainy. Though the Siamese have no word to express a week, they denominate the seven days after the planets, and their Monday corresponds with ours. Their year commences on the first day of the moon in November or December. Their months are twelve of thirty days each, not named, but numbered. Opposite to that part of the west side of the peninsula of Malacca which belongs to Siam, lie the islands of Andeman, about eighty leagues distant, surrounded with rocks and dangerous shoals. They are inhabited by an hardy race of canibals, who will swim off and attack any boat that approaches the shore. More to the south are the Nicobar islands, the inhabitants of the northern cluster of which, are exceedingly courteous, but those of the southern not so much so. The portion of the peninsula of Malacca not dependent on Siam contains the small kingdom of Quedah. The king residing in a town of the same name, displays no marks of grandeur, but exhibits the most arbitrary disposition; and his subjects are deceitful, covetous, and cruel; their religion is the Mahometan, mixed with paganism. The remaining part of this peninsula, properly belongs to the kingdom of Johor or Joar, which begins at Perah, the next country to Quedah southward. The inhabitants are untractable, treacherous, and blood-thirsty. The Malayan tongue is said to be formed out of the languages of the different nations which resort thither, by selecting the choicest words from each; and it is learned by the remotest eastern people. The territories of Johor extend from Perah to Point Romar or Romano, the most southern promontory of all Asia. The inland people here subsist mostly on sago, the pith of a small twig split, and dried in the sun, sowing very little

grain. The only people of industry among them are about a thousand families of Chinese, who have emigrated thither. Little is known of the history of this part of the peninsula. Near the close of the seventeenth century there reigned a young man of so vicious a disposition as not to deserve the name; and who was most justly slain: when the kingdom continued in anarchy for three years. At length the people elected another sovereign, named Abdallah Jalib, a cozen of the former, a prince of great moderation and justice; but who at the end of nine years left the government to a younger brother, named Rajah Moudah, by whose tyrannical and covetous conduct every thing fell into confusion, and the people at length rose in rebellion, and drove him to flight; when he murdered his wives, A. D. 1712. his children, and himself. But to return to Siam. In this kingdom all are either freemen or slaves, and may be either born or made such. A man may be made a slave by debt, by capture in war, or by judicial sentence. A Siamese sometimes sells himself and children for victuals, or even for the sake of eating a favourite fruit called durion. Their slavery, however, is very gentle, being often turned into a light annual tribute, and a slave for debt is restored to his liberty on making satisfaction; yet the children born to him during his slavery continue slaves. The Siamese detest vice; all but the dregs of the people account it disgracefull to drink strong liquor. They pay great respect to age. Begging is deemed very ignominious, and so uncommon is robbery, except by the outlaws in the forests, that little care is taken to secure the doors even in the night; and though avarice being their predominant vice, usury is practised without bounds; their fidelity in traffick is inviolable. Murder is seldom committed among them. They are courteous, timorous, and careless; have little curiosity; are insolent to the humble, and humble to the insolent; have more moderation than the Europeans, but are much addicted to dissimulation. Their religion is nearly the same with that of the people of Laos. The king is perfectly despotick, and like the ancient Persian monarchs, sometimes marries his own sister, to whom his other wives are totally subservient. The name of the first king of Siam is little adapted to repetition in an abridgment, being Pra-poat-honne Sourittep-pennaratui Sonanne

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Bopitra. To this monarch succeeded ten others, of the last of which alone, the name is given us; Ipoja Sanne Thora Thesma Teperat. The sixteenth king after this began to build the city of Siuthiya, or Siam, and there fixed his court. Chaumigrem, the Barma, king of Pegu, already mentioned, reduced to his obedience
A. D. 1568. the kingdom of Siam. But under his successor it recovered its
A. D. 1590. independence, and its warlike king, named Rajah Api, made extensive conquests. This prince, who was called the black king,
A. D. 1605. dying, was succeeded by his brother, called the white king, who reigned in peace five years. On his death his second son ascended the throne, and being embroiled in an insurrection of some Japannese slaves, the kings of Camboja and Lanjang seized the opportunity and revolted. Some years after this, mutual embassies passed between the king of Siam, at that time it should seem, named Rajah Hapi, and the Portuguese, and the missionaries of these last were encouraged in his territories. On the decease of this monarch his brother, named Oki Kronwi, seized the throne, but the late king's son expelled the usurper; but was himself quickly slain, and succeeded by his younger brother. How long this prince continued on the throne does not appear. But in the year sixteen hundred and fifty-seven, an usurper obtained the crown of Siam; he was called Chaw Pasa-thong, and had been, previous to his usurpation, chancellor of the kingdom, and proved a monster of cruelty; yet sat
A. D. 1657. on the throne thirty years. On his death the throne was seized by his brother, Pra Sitama Racha; yet the deceased monarch's son attacked and slew him, after he had worn the crown three months. This proved a prince of activity and vigour, and obviated several conspiracies. In his reign the papal missionaries found encourage-
A. D. 1674. ment in Siam, and established a seminary there; but could not prevail on the king to embrace their faith. Some years after this, Chaw Naraya became involved in hostilities with Camboja and Cochin-China, and these terminated not for many years. An embassador from France afterwards attempted to make a convert of the king with as little success as the missionaries, though a Christian called lord Faulkon, had at that time all the power of prime minister. Two years after the departure of this embassy, a prince of

Macassar, who had fled from the island of Celebes, when the Dutch subdued his father's kingdom, and had with his followers been kindly received by the king of Siam, joined in a plot for dethroning his benefactor, and his desperate band was not reduced without some difficulty. Another French embassy arriving in Siam, it began to appear, that lord Faulkon, otherwise called lord Constance, had sought to form an alliance between the two courts, and introduced some French into Siam, for the protection of himself; being much hated for his oppressive conduct by the natives. But the introduction of foreign troops (for the French had brought some with them), and of foreign priests excited a suspicion in the Siamese, that the king had a design to change both the laws and religion of their country; and the great men of it determined to obviate the measures directed to this end. But, as Chaw Naraya's death seemed to be near, they were unwilling to attempt any thing during his life. Yet no sooner was he seized with illness, than a Siamese, named Pitrachas, sprung from the ancient royal race, who had a view to the crown, by a course of intrigue, first got lord Faulkon into his power, and put him to a cruel death, then destroyed the king's two brothers, and attempted to cut off all the French; and on the decease of Chaw Naraya, was crowned without opposition; when he deemed it most politick to get the French out of his country by a treaty; which being accordingly made, they all withdrew to Pondicherry. Pitrachas had scarcely seated himself on the throne of Siam, when an impostor pretending to be the eldest of the late king's brothers, made an attempt to supplant him, but failing was put to a cruel death. Pitrachas seems to have enjoyed the throne which he so nefariously obtained but a short time. It is said, that he was succeeded by his son Sourakak, who at his decease left his crown to his son Chaw. Neither of this king or his successors is any thing reported, but that in A. D. 1708. seventeen hundred and seventeen, one of them invaded Camboja, with a large force, but was obliged to return with the loss of half his force for want of provisions. The country thus invaded is bounded on the west by Siam; on the north by the kingdom of Laos, with part of Cochin-China; on the east by Cochin-China; and on the south by the bays of Camboja and Siam. Its greatest length is about five hundred and

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twenty English miles, and its breadth three hundred and ninety-eight. The land of Camboja forms a spacious valley between two chains of mountains, with a large river running through the midst of it. It is inhabited almost solely near the great river and its branches. The soil equals in fertility that of most of the Indian regions; a number of small islands lie off the coast. The Cambojans carry on little maritime trade; but foreigners resort to them for the commodities which their country affords, and especially for provisions, which are very plentifull and cheap. Their chief commodities are gold, raw silk, ivory, odoriferous woods, and drugs. Their idolatry differs little or nothing from that of Siam. The king of Camboja is so despotick, that he inherits even the personal effects of his subjects. The little history we have of Camboja commences about the year fifteen hundred and fifty-nine, when it was subject to Siam. How long this subjection lasted does not appear, but near the end of the same century,

A. D. 1592. Laudara, a Mahometan king of Camboja, requested the Spanish governour of the Philippine islands to assist him against an invasion of the Siamese. The same request was repeated in the course of two years by another sovereign of Camboja, named Langara; but the compliance with it ended only in the destruction of the Spaniards, who embarked for that country, and in the reduction of it by the Siamese monarch, Rajah Api. From this yoke it revolted after some years; but became a prey to civil wars for more than half a century.

A. D. 1717. This state of the country seems to have tempted the Siamese to another invasion, which by the assistance which the Cochin-Chinese gave to the Cambojans ended in the loss and disgrace of the Siamese. The kingdom of Cochin-China, which signifies the western China, was called by that name by the Portuguese, to distinguish it from the kingdom of Cochin on the coast of Malabar. It is situate in the torrid zone, is in length from north to south about five hundred miles, but from the east to west not nearly so extensive. It is bounded by Tong-king on the north; on the south between it and the ocean lies the small tributary kingdom of Champa; on the east it has the Chinese Sea; and on the west the kingdoms of Laos and Camboja. The annual inundations which commence towards the middle of autumn, and continue two whole months, render the country

uncommonly fertile, especially in rice. The country is extremely populous, the inland traffick great, and the people themselves are stout, robust, and industrious, and differ but little from the Chinese. They are in general represented as a sober, courteous people, temperate in their diet, dress, and mode of living, and of a calm and patient temper. Their religion is nearly the same with that of the Chinese; the king, nobles, and literati, following the doctrine of Confucius, while the people in general are given up to the stupid superstitions of Fo and Lao-kiun. The monarch is despotick. The sentences which he passes, whether capital or otherwise, are immediately executed. This sovereign is very opulent, having several princes tributary to him. The kingdom of Tong-king by the Europeans commonly called Tunkin or Tunquin, is bounded on the north and east by China, on the west by the small kingdoms of Law-chiva, which also divide it from Siam on the south. It is supposed to extend about three hundred and seventy miles in length, and about two hundred and forty where broadest. The climate of this kingdom is so mild and temperate, that the whole year appears like a continued spring: yet the country is infested with great floods. Such is the populousness of it, that great numbers of its inhabitants labour under extreme poverty for want of employment; yet what principally contributes to their indigence is, the universal disposition to gaming, which induces them to continue to play as long as they have any thing left to stake. The Tonquinese have from the Chinese learned the doctrines of Confucius, and the superstition of Fo. Christianity, or at least that which the jesuits thought fit to preach as such, was planted in this land in the early part of the seventeenth century; but after so great an increase of converts, that they had already built at their own expence more than two hundred churches, several persecutions were by the government raised against them; and at length by a royal edict the Christian religion was totally abolished; the missionaries and their catechists were imprisoned, and put to torture and to death, and the strictest measures taken to prevent any European preachers from entering the country again. When the Tonquinese, after many changes in their government, had regained their ancient constitution under native princes,

who were become likewise kings of Cochin-China; these being absolute in both committed the administration in each to a prime minister or general, with almost unlimited authority. This unadvised measure soon tempted the ministers to set themselves above their master. The Cochin-Chinese general began, and that of Tong-King soon followed his example. The former having made himself master of the royal revenue and the army, seized on the king's person, and confining him in the palace, took the whole authority into his own hands. From that time the sovereigns, termed by their subjects bovas, have had little else than the name of royalty. Though for fear of the people the usurpers have been obliged to content themselves with the title of chova, or generalissimo. And this form of government hath now subsisted above two centuries; the dignity of chova having been made hereditary. Of the origin, antiquity, and history of the Tonquinese there is little to state. They seem to have formed a kind of republick under their own ethnarchs, until the son or nephew of Shin-nong, the emperour of China, subdued the country. But it was with great difficulty that he brought them to acknowledge him for their sovereign. His family having for a number of generations sate on the throne, one of the Chinese monarchs attacked and conquered the kingdom, by an army under twelve commanders; who, having taken the country, divided it among themselves. But a young shepherd soon succeeded in restoring freedom to his country, and was for that service, by the unananimous choice of his countrymen, raised to the throne; but being assassinated by order of the Chinese monarch after ten years, the kingdom returned under that yoke. From that period for several centuries the history of Tong-King consists of frequent revolutions; the natives sometimes recovering their freedom, and then being again reduced. The first king mentioned in their own records was named Ding, and reigned about two hundred years before Christ. He was raised to his dignity by a troop of banditti, and at last massacred by his subjects for his insupportable tyranny. On his death ensued a long series of wars, which was terminated by the election of a new king named Le-day-han. In his days the Chinese over-ran the whole kingdom, and though he obtained several victories over them, he was unable

to expel them from several strong holds and passes of which they had obtained possession. After his death another king was elected, named Ly-bal-vic, who had at length the glory of driving them out of his dominions. In his family the crown continued, until after five or six generations it descended to an only daughter; who, taking a young nobleman as her husband and partner in her throne, another named Ho, stimulated by envy, rebelled, and having defeated the new king, seized the crown, and caused both him and his wife to be put to death. Having by this and many similar atrocities excited the general detestation of his subjects, they called in the Chinese to assist them in throwing off his yoke; but by this step brought another on their necks. For having destroyed the usurper, their deliverers overturned their old form of government, and compelled them to submit to the laws and customs of the Chinese. Yet their impatience of a foreign yoke induced them soon to revolt under the conduct of an officer named Ly, who easily forced the Chinese emperour to a peace favourable to Tong-King; and was acknowledged and crowned king of that country, on paying a small tribute and doing A. D. 1200. homage to the emperour of China. This treaty has for the most part been observed ever since; and the descendants of Ly sat on the Tonquinese throne during two whole centuries, without any other token of submission to foreign sovereignty than the tribute and homage renderd triennially. But on the revolution before stated, when the real power of the kingdom became vested in the chova, the Chinese seem to have laid on it other badges of subjection: the new chova must be confirmed by the emperour, and receive the seals of which he is to make use from the imperial court. Neither has Tong-King continued in peace under its chova. A revolt having taken place under a fisherman, named Mak, he having defeated the chova, caused himself to be proclaimed king, when a rival started up of the name of Tring, and giving out that he took arms in defence of the family of Ly, caused one of the young princes to be publickly invested with the regal dignity. Yet his design was to confine him A. D. 1200. to the title of bova, retaining the authority himself, and his chief dependence for accomplishing this purpose was on a brother-in-law, the son of a man in great power. But he discovering Tring's selfish

design, a breach took place between them. Yet Hoaving, such was the name of the brother-in-law, was unable to prevent him from getting himself confirmed in his usurpation by all the grandees of the kingdom. Hoaving finding himself unable to cope with him, proceeded with the forces which he had at his command to the conquest of Cochin-China; where he got himself proclaimed chova: a step which widened the breach between them. Neither did the war which they waged with each other end with their lives: their successors inherited their mutual hatred; their subjects have gradually imbibed the same prejudice, nor have we heard of its ceasing to operate.

The only part of Asia situate between Hindostan and China yet remaining unnoticed, is that which is principally occupied by the greater Tibet. The whole country denominated Tibet, and which some authors call Butan, lies between the twenty-sixth and thirty-ninth degrees of north latitude, and is supposed to extend in length seventeen hundred and thirty-five miles from east to west, its breadth varying from more than the same extent to not above half of it, and in some places scarcely a fourth part, and in others still less. It is bounded on the north by the country of the Moguls and the desert of Cobi; on the east by China, on the west by Hindostan, and on the south by the same empire, the kingdom of Ava, and other countries of the farther peninsula. The land of Tibet is in general very high, which renders the country cold, considering its latitude. Those mountains which divide it from Hindostan have a fearfull appearance. They are heaped one on another, and their summits are separated only by torrents which rush from the rocks with a noise that stuns and terrifies travellers. No plant, not even a blade of grass, is to be seen on these heights, and the road over them is so narrow in general, that the traveller can scarcely find room to set his foot. The region generally comprehended under the name of Tibet is usually divided into Great and Little Tibet and Lassa. This lies between the great Tibet and the countries of Rokonor and Tufan, and is bounded on the north by the desert of Cobi. The towns in this and all parts of Tibet are in general small, and none of them fortified. The soil of the country is good; the articles of commerce

are furs, musk, rhubarb, and wormseed. The inhabitants are strong and well-proportioned, but their noses and faces somewhat flat. The men are said to be restrained to one wife, but the women are allowed several husbands, who are generally relations, sometimes brothers. The grand lama, who is called Dalay lama, or universal priest, was formerly sovereign of all Tibet; but now disclaiming all concern with temporal affairs, he chooses an individual whom he constitutes governour in his stead by the name of Tipa. The grand lama's residence is in one of the finest pagods on the mountain Putala. He sits cross-legged on a magnificent cushion placed on a kind of altar, and in that posture receives the worship of not only the people of the country, but of a multitude of strangers, who take long journeys to offer him homage on their knees, and receive his blessing. It is said that more than twenty thousand lamas or priests reside round the foot of this mountain. The high opinion entertained by both princes and people of the power and holiness of the dalay lama induces them readily to submit to the most servile rites. They believe that the supposed god Fo lives in him, and that he sees all things, and penetrates into the secrets of every heart. They are persuaded that he dies not, but only changes his abode by being born again in a new body, which is to be discovered by carefull search; the lamas alone understanding by what marks he is to be distinguished. The principal image worshipped by these people is named Manippe, and represented with nine heads, arranged in the form of a cone. The superstition of Tibet resembles in a very marked manner that of the church of Rome. They offer alms, prayers, and sacrifices for the dead; believe the dalay lama has the power of remitting sins, have their confessors licensed by the lama, the use of beads and holy water, and a vast number of convents filled with monks, who make the three vows of poverty, obedience, and chastity, besides several others. In the greater Tibet there grow but few trees, fruits or roots, yet the land produces wheat and barley. A small part of the country is inhabited by Mahometans, the rest by Pagans. There is only one absolute prince in this country, who has under him a tributary king. Little Tibet is a mountainous country on the west of Great Tibet and to the north-east of Cashmire. It is

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said to be one hundred and eighty miles in length, and one hundred and sixty in breadth. Though so mountainous that the snow lies deep during the winter, it in some places produces very good fruit, especially melons. Its capital is named Eskerdu. The inhabitants are chiefly Mahometans, and their princes are said to have been subject to the emperour of Hindostan, previously to the decrease of his power. The people are poor, and their only articles of commerce are a little crystal, musk, and wool. Not being able to find any account of the transactions which have taken place in the country of Tibet within the period to which this work reaches, I trust the reader will excuse my giving an abridgment of it, and willingly resume the history of China.

The History of China resumed.

The story of that country was suspended on the murder of the emperour, Kat-su-venti, by his own son, named Yang-ti. Who did

A. D. 605.

not fill the throne so badly as might have been expected from his parricides. Though enslaved by luxury, he had character sufficient to induce several petty princes to seek his protection. Attacking the Coreans by sea, he reduced them to vassalage; but in the thirteenth year of his reign justice overtook him, and he was assassinated by a man of mean rank, when the crown was placed on the

A. D. 618.

head of this emperour's nephew, named Kong-ti. This monarch was crowned, and in the same year dethroned by Li-wen, who thus put

A. D. 619.

an end to this, and became the founder of a new dynasty, assuming the name of Shin-yau-ti; though by others he is stated to have taken that of Kao-tsu. In the course of two years he had by the reduction of all that were in rebellion become peaceable possessor of the whole empire. He obliged an hundred thousand idle Bonzas to marry for the better supply of his army; and having reigned nine years he

A. D. 628.

abdicated the throne in favour of his second son, Tay-tsong, who proved one of the wisest and most humane sovereigns China ever had. Nor was he less admired for his frugality, temperance, and love of learning. In his reign the missionaries were permitted to preach in China. Towards the close of it a revolt of the Coreans

A. D. 151.

took place, and death prevented his attempt to reduce them. He had then reigned twenty-three years; and was succeeded by his son Kau-tsong. This monarch reigned in peace, until enamoured of a

female, named Vu-shi, he married her, and though she proved a monster of cruelty, he permitted her to govern the empire, and gave her the title of Queen of Heaven. This blasphemy the lady rewarded by poisoning her own eldest son. The weak king died after a reign of thirty-four years, and left the crown to his eldest son; but the empress set him aside, to place on the throne a younger whom she could more easily rule. Vu-hew thus raised to the empire was A. D. 685. the third son of this vile woman; who proceeded to destroy all the nobles which she thought averse from their interest; and she raised a persecution against the Christians, which continued for fifteen years. Her Kolau, a man of virtue, did at length prevail on her to recall from banishment her eldest son; but he did not re-ascend the throne until the death of Vu-hew, who reigned one-and-twenty years. A. D. 706. Being then declared emperour, this prince, whose name was Chung-tsong, resigned himself wholly to indulgence; leaving the government entirely to his empress, who had faithfully accompanied him in his exile: and in the fifth of his reign, he was taken off by poison. The empress having caused her son Shang to be proclaimed, his uncle Zhui-tsong opposed his succession, caused the empress and her daughter to be put to death, and the young emperour to abdicate, and ascended the throne himself. On this he continued but two years; and was then succeeded by his own third son, Yiun-tsong; A. D. 713. who was an excellent prince, adverse to the luxury prevalent, and diligent in the promotion of science. He divided the empire into fifteen provinces; but he at length gave too much power to his eunuchs; dangerous insurrections broke out in the empire, and his army was defeated with very great loss. The author of the rebellion assumed the imperial title, while Yiun-tsong was at home acting most nefariously. His empress he divorced, and put to death three of her children without any cause, and married his daughter-in-law. From this state of disorder arose new calamities, encouraged by which a band of robbers attacked and routed the imperial army, and obliged the emperour to retreat into one of the provinces. When his son, Sa-tsong, a warlike prince, assumed the government, put an A. D. 757. end to the host of robbers, and restored tranquillity. After which he with all due honours brought back his father to his palace, who died

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soon after. Sa-tsong himself after reigning three years, was succeeded by his son Tay-tsong; under whose reign five tributary princes rendered themselves independent, and the Tartars making an
A. D. 763. irruption into China carried off a great booty. Tay-tsong dying in
A. D. 780. the seventeenth year of his reign, was succeeded by his son Te-tsong, a timorous and mistrustfull prince, under whom the eunuchs, by abusing the influence they had gained occasioned extensive insurrections; yet after the suppression, peace and plenty reigned in the empire. Te-tsong having reigned twenty-five years, at his death left his crown to his son Shun-tsong, who being attacked by a disorder deemed incurable, after a reign of a year resigned the crown to his
A. D. 806. son, Hyen-tsong. This was a prince eminently qualified for business, and of particular fortitude, and tender of his subjects welfare, but most superstitiously attached to the Bonzas, and impressed with an opinion that a liquor which they possessed would render him immortal.
A. D. 821. He made the trial, and died immediately after drinking some of it. He was succeeded by his son, Mo-tsong, who frustrating the measures of those who would have advanced another successor, disbanded the army; part of which for support engaged themselves with the banditti, and added to the distress of the people. Mo-tsong died in the fourth year of his reign, and was succeeded by his son King-tsong; a weak prince, who after a reign of two years was murdered by his eunuchs. These placed on the throne his brother Ven-tsong; but having penetrated his design of destroying them, they suddenly attacked his ministers and guards, slaying more than a thousand of them. This incident is reported so to have depressed his
A. D. 841. spirits as to cause his death in the fourteenth year of his reign: when the eunuchs setting his son aside, raised to the throne the emperour's brother, Vu-tsong, and he proved himself worthy of the preference. He had valour and sound judgment, and manifested great discernment in the choice of his ministers. He expelled the Tartars from the province of Shensi. This emperour is said to have revived a regulation under which the Mandarins were obliged once in five, or at most in seven years, to send in an account of all their miscarriages, and to ask pardon, under the penalty of receiving no favour, if any was disguised or palliated. He is also reported to have

suppressed the Christians. After a reign of only six years he was on his decease succeeded by a grandson of Hyen-tsong of the name of Swen-tsong. This prince raised to the throne by the eunuchs with very different views, proved eminently qualified to reign, and gained the hearts of his subjects, by his application, wisdom, and equity: yet he fell a victim to his eager desire for life, through a potion recommended to him as a panacea; after drinking which he died eaten by worms. A. D. 860. I-tsong, his son, having succeeded him, by the intemperance of his life, soon rendered himself an object of hatred to his subjects. He reigned fourteen years, and it is said, that the Chinese themselves ascribe his death and the subsequent troubles to his blind devotion to the idol Fo. His throne was filled by his son, Hi-tsong, then only A. D. 874. twelve years old, by the power of the eunuchs, to whom the young monarch consequently left the whole administration of the government: when great disorders ensued, and the oppressed people rose in rebellion, and under the direction of a leader named Whan-tsyau, drove the emperour from his capital, and proclaimed their leader in his room. In the midst of these troubles, a young man, only twenty-eight years old, named Li-ke-yang, being advanced to the command of the imperial army, after one repulse by the rebels totally defeated them, and brought back the emperour in triumph: for which service he had bestowed on him the principality of Tsin, and his son soon after became the founder of a new dynasty. The emperour died about three months after his restoration. The eunuchs then placed A. D. 889. on the throne a brother of his, named Chau-tsong, who purposing to reduce their exorbitant power was suddenly seized by them, and confined in a remote apartment under a strong guard, with no other channel of communication than a hole in the wall, through which his food was conveyed. This place being discovered by one of his ministers, he sent a body of determined men, who slew the guards, and re-conducted the emperour to his throne; and afterwards, so low was the imperial power reduced, he engaged a captain of free booters, named Chu-ven, to assist the prince against the eunuchs. This man arriving at a time when an edict had been issued for extirpating all but thirty, who were to be reserved for the most servile offices, executed his commission so rigorously, that many hundreds

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were slain; but after this exhibition of loyalty, Chu-ven caused the faithfull minister himself to be put to death, and afterwards the emperour, giving the crown to his son, until a safe opportunity should

A. D. 905. offer for taking it from him. Chan-swen-tsong, for that was the young emperour's name, had not been two years on the throne, ere he discerned the purpose of Chu-ven to deprive him of life; to prevent which he offered him the crown. This the robber readily accepted, and in return conferred on the abdicated monarch a principality, which he enjoyed but a short time, being slain; but by whom or

A. D. 907. how is not reported; and in him ended the family of Tang. Chu-ven, assuming the name of Tay-tsu, became the founder of a new though short dynasty, neither did he long enjoy the fruits of his iniquity. Many principalities withdrew their allegiance; and ere he had completed the sixth year of his reign, he was murdered by his own eldest son; but his third, named Mo-ti, who was sovereign of a petty state, no sooner heard of his death, than he marched an army against his brother, defeated, and slew him, and then seated himself on the throne. But Chu-ang-tsong, the son of a celebrated general in the reign of the emperour Hi-tsong, taking advantage of the prevailing troubles to seize a crown of which he deemed himself more worthy than the actual usurper, with an army accustomed to victory, first taking from Mo-ti several considerable places, and then defeating him in battle, the latter in despair slew himself, and put an

A. D. 923. end to the fourteenth dynasty. Chuang-tsong then ascended the throne, and though so enured to war, that he is said in all his campaigns to have slept on the ground with a bell about his neck, that he might not over-sleep himself, he became the slave of avarice, and was in the third year of his reign mortally wounded in a mutiny

A. D. 926. of his troops; but whether designedly or not remains unknown. His successor was Ming-tsong, whom the father of Chuang-tsong had formerly adopted, though not born within the empire: and his behaviour justified his elevation. For liberal, pacifick, fond of his subjects, and attentive to learned men, although himself illiterate, he was the author of many excellent regulations, and excluded

A. D. 934. eunuchs from all publick employments. After reigning eight years he was succeeded by his son, Min-ti; who, ere he had reigned a

twelvemonth, was deprived of both life and crown by a brother-in-law, named She-king-tang, who had marched from the province of Lyautong to dethrone him; yet his adopted son, Lo-vang, afterwards named Fi-ti, ascended the throne in his room, but unable to oppose his father's murderer, he shut himself up with his family and all his valuables in a palace, to which he set fire, and perished in the flames. When She-king-tang took the name of Kau-tsu, and founded a new dynasty called Neu-tsin; but the commander of the Tartar auxiliaries of Lyau-tong manifesting an inclination to assume the imperial diadem, Kau-tsu not daring to engage in war with him, covenanted to cede to him sixteen cities of the province of Pecheli, and to send him annually three hundred thousand pieces of silk. Kau-tsu dying after a reign of seven years, the grandees selected for his successor his nephew, Tsi-vang: who soon after his accession saw his dominions invaded by the Lyau-tongians in breach of the treaty made with his predecessors, and in opposing them being betrayed by his general, Liew-chi-ywen, he was seized by the enemy, and dethroned; when he gladly accepted a small principality, in which he ended his days: while his treacherous general became the founder of a new dynasty, called Hew-han, and assumed the name of Kau-tsu. From want of exertion in this emperour, the northern provinces suffered shocking ravages from the Lyau-tongians; but when entering the southern, they met with so firm an opposition from the Chinese, that their leader content with the spoil which he had obtained, retreated into his own country. In the mean time, Kau-tsu died in the second year of his reign, and was succeeded by his son, In-ti, who employing all his forces in opposing the Tartars of Lyau-tong, the eunuchs endeavoured to recover their power, and while his troops were gaining signal victories, the emperour himself was slain in a sedition excited in his palace, in the second year of his reign. The empress immediately placed his brother on the throne; but the imperial general, Ko-ghey, quickly returning triumphant from his glorious expedition, was by his army proclaimed emperour. He however treated the empress with filial respect, and taking the name of Tay-tsu, founded the next dynasty, called Hew-chew. He removed his court to the capital of the province of Honan, and paid

A. D. 936.

A. D. 943.

A. D. 947.

A. D. 949.

A. D. 951.

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great honours to the memory of Confucius. Some assert that the Mahometans first settled in China in his reign; while others place this event five dynasties earlier. He reigned three years only, and

A. D. 954. was succeeded by his son, Shi-tsang. This prince possessed both love of learning and military skill, yet was no less remarkable for humility and attention to the welfare of his subjects. The eminence of his character induced several petty princes to make their submission to him, and death alone prevented his attempting to recover the provinces wrested from the empire during the preceding troubles. After reigning six years, he was succeeded by his son Kong-ti, then but seven years old; but on account of his age, the grandees thought proper to set this infant aside, and to offer the crown to the prime minister, whom his father had appointed guardian to the young king, and who without much difficulty accepted it, and while a small principality was assigned to Kong-ti, when he had reigned but a few months, ascended the throne, and changed his name of Chauquang-yu for that of Tay-tsu, under which he began a new dynasty in number the nineteenth, and called Song. That he might be at hand to repell the incursions of the Tartars, he kept his court in the northern provinces, and proving to be endowed with all the requisite qualities of a sovereign, he gave his empire a respite of considerable duration. By his fame for wisdom and moderation no fewer than ten petty sovereigns were induced to submit to his government. In the seventeenth year of a reign distinguished by acts of extensive beneficence,*

A. D. 977. this monarch bequeathed his crown to his brother Tay-tsong, who on his accession proved to be a lover of learning, and erected a

* Two remarkable actions of this character are recorded of him. One that in a severe winter when his army was engaged in the north, he pulled off his own fur gown, and sent it to the general with a message, that he wished it was in his power to send the same to every soldier; an action that inspired all his troops with a zeal so ardent as to be scarcely conceivable. The other, that when besieging Nanking, he by a feigned sickness prevailed on his generals to promise him that on the capture of the city they would spare the blood of the citizens. The blood of the few who were slain drew from him, it is stated, a flood of tears, and to relieve the survivors from the famine which they had suffered during the siege, he immediately sent, for distribution among them, an hundred thousand measures of rice.

library of eighty thousand volumes.* He endeavoured to recover the cities ceded by Kau-tsu to the Lyau-tongians, but with fluctuating success, from his often acting against the advice of his most experienced commanders. On his decease, after a reign of twenty-one years, he was succeeded by his third son, Ching-tsang. The devout A. D. 998. and beneficent acts of this prince at the commencement of his reign excited hopes, which through his imbecility were disappointed. For in lieu of pursuing the advantages which his victorious troops had gained over the Lyautongians, he bought of them a disgracefull peace by a considerable annual tribute. He was also addicted to magick, and other superstitions. Still there is a curious anecdote of an account he had taken of the number of his people employed in agriculture only, amounting to twenty millions nine hundred seventy-six thousand, nine hundred and sixty-five; and he caused the ancient books to be reprinted, and dispersed throughout the empire. He died in the twenty-fifth year of his reign, being succeeded by his sixth son of his second queen. Jin-tsong, for this was the new A. D. 1023. monarch's name, was at his accession but thirteen years old. The empress therefore assumed the government, which she retained until her death, when her son was arrived at the age of twenty-four. When he received the reins he aimed at tranquillity only, and their discovery of this disposition encouraged the Tartars to compell him, by renewing the war, to purchase another dishonourable peace. On the other hand, in his praise it is recorded, that he was a prince of true piety, that he banished from his dominions all worshippers of images, was constant in his acts of devotion, and saved from famine five hundred thousand of his subjects, by a timely supply of corn and rice. His eager desire for male offspring induced him unjustly to

* A characteristick sententiousness which may have already stricken the reader, in the history of the Chinese, was exhibited by this prince, when at the siege of a revolted city, having passed over unnoticed a tumult headed by his brother, Chau, whom some of the soldiers would have raised to the throne, on his brother's expressing, after the city was taken, some surprise, that he had not rewarded those who had signalized themselves at the siege, the emperour replied, "I expected that you would have rewarded them," and so severely was Chau stung by this sarcasm, that ere night he slew himself.

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divorce his empress, yet by another which he married he had no children. Ere his decease he named Ing-tsong, his brother's thirteenth son, his successor, and he died in the forty-first year of his
A. D. 1064. reign. Ing-tsong, after some differences between him and the empress, who, though not his mother, had a share in the government, were healed, passed his reign in tranquillity; the whole of which
A. D. 1068. extended to only four years. At the end of these he was succeeded by his son, Shin-tsong. Manifesting a wish to deliver his northern subjects from the Tartarian yoke, this prince was persuaded by his dying mother to peace. Proving a patron of learned men, many flourished in his reign, and after ruling with piety and benevolence
A. D. 1086. eighteen years, he left his crown to his son, Che-tsong: who being only ten years old, his grandmother governed with eminent wisdom during eight years, and on her death-bed exhorted the prime minister to discard several of the emperour's flatterers and useless servants; but to this his influence was unequal. The monarch however lived under their guidance but seven years after his grandmother's
A. D. 1101. decease; when he was succeeded by his father's eleventh son, of the name of Whey-tsong. This prince, to diminish the toil of business, divided the government with his grandmother, and lowered himself in the estimation of his subjects by again raising the eunuchs to power. Joining forces with the eastern Tartars, he put an end to the kingdom of the Lyau-tongians, after it had subsisted two hundred and ninety years. Yet this triumph cost him dear; since the Tartarian chief quickly broke his treaties with him, and over-ran the provinces of Pecheli and Shen-si, profiting much by the treachery of some Chinese malcontents. Whey-tsong met the conquerours in person, and settled the boundaries of their respective dominions. Yet on his return to his capital he was persuaded not to adhere to the disgracefull agreement which he had made; but the Tartars apprized of his purpose, still more shamefully to break it, entered the province of Shen-si; and Whey-tsong, to avoid war, which he particularly dreaded, consented to another interview; when he was seized, stripped of his imperial ornaments, and confined. Of his death it is said only, that it occurred in the desert of Shamo in the twenty-fifth year of his reign, and by his appointment the throne was

filled by his son, Kin-tsong. Though this prince attended to his father's instructions in putting to death six of his treacherous ministers, he prepared so little against the Tartars, that they penetrated into the province of Honan, and passed the yellow river A. D. 1126. without opposition; when marching directly to the metropolis, they took and plundered it, and carried off captive the emperour and his consort in the first year of his reign; but left behind them the empress Meng, who had been divorced. But she being a princess of great conduct, preserved the empire by getting the crown conferred on A. D. 1127 Kau-tsong, the brother of the late emperour. This prince had some success against the Tartars, which might have been improved; but he confided in a few parasites, and was so addicted to the bonzas, that he committed the care of the empire to his adopted son, that he might be more at leisure to attend to their superstition. In the mean time, Ho-tsang, the Tartar king, made every effort to gain the affection of his new subjects. Having taken the city of Nan-king, and there captured a general, named Yung-pang, he endeavoured by high offers to engage him in his interest; but the faithfull officer, to testify his determination to adhere to his duty, wrote on his vest with his blood, that he preferred death to serving barbarians. Another Chinese general marching rapidly to relieve the capital, the Tartars set fire to the palace and retreated; but with the loss of nearly their whole rear, and after that they dared not to cross the Kyang. Yet in a few years, Kau-tsong concluded with them a disgracefull treaty, acknowledging himself their tributary. This peace however, the Tartar soon infringed, invading the southern provinces, and taking the city of Yang-chew; but attempting to cross the Yang-tse-kyang, where widest and most rapid, his army mutinied, slew him, and hastily retreated towards the north. In the eleventh year of his reign Kau-tsong resigned his crown to his adopted son. After which he lived five-and-twenty years; but left no offspring. Hyau-tsong, whose reign is reckoned from the death of his predecessor, was A. D. 1163. descended from the founder of the dynasty, and having a more pacifick neighbour in the new Tartar king, She-tsong, reigned in peace seven-and-twenty years. In his reign one of the most celebrated interpreters of the ancient books, Chu-hi, discharged with

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honour the highest functions of the state. Hyau-tsong was on his decease succeeded by his third son, Quang-tsong, who in the fifth year of his reign died of an apoplexy, and had for his successor his

A. D. 1190. third son, Ning-tsong; who, being with difficulty prevailed on to

A. D. 1195. accept the crown, was wholly governed by his courtiers.* About the twelfth year of this emperour's reign the Kin or eastern Tartars again breaking the peace invaded China; on which Ning-tsong entered into a league with those of the west, for the destruction of the former, who were perpetually disturbing him by their breach of faith. This alliance induced the eastern Tartars to offer him most advantageous terms of peace; which he with scorn rejected. Dying after a reign of thirty years, the throne was filled by another

A. D. 1225. descendant of the founder of the dynasty, named Li-tsong; who proved less disposed to military achievements, than to learning, and the sect of Taw. Still in conjunction with his new allies he vigorously pressed the war with the faithless Tartars. He took from them the city of Honan, the residence of their king, and subdued the capital of Shang-tong after a long siege; during which the Tartars were reduced to feed on human flesh, and their monarch, Ngai-ti, hung himself in despair just before its surrender. Thus ended the empire of the eastern Tartars, after it had subsisted under nine princes, and during the space of an hundred and seventeen years. Still the small remains of the nation which was then nearly annihilated, gave rise to the family which afterwards conquered China, and yet governs it. And even at the time now spoken of, Li-tsong had under his dominion no more than the southern provinces of the empire; the western Tartars holding those of the north, and their king, named Koplay Khan, and by the Chinese, Hopilye, gained the love of his subjects by his patronage of literature, and the honours which he paid to the memory of Confucius. Li-tsong reigned forty

A. D. 1265. years, and dying childless was succeeded by his nephew, Tu-tsong.

* As in this reign the imperial palace was set on fire, and burnt for four days, ere it could be extinguished; so during it occurred perhaps the most extensive conflagrations of edifices on record; one of which took place in the metropolis of Hang-chew, and reduced to ashes five hundred and thirty thousand houses.

Encouraged in debauchery by a prime minister as vicious as himself, in vain did many of his servants endeavour by earnest representations to disengage this prince from his wicked course; but finding their efforts fruitless, and foreseeing the dreadfull fate coming on the imperial family, they retired to the western Tartars, then pursuing their conquests in the north. The provinces of Yu-nan, Se-chwen, and Shen-si, had already fallen under their power, and most of the cities of Huquang were opening their gates to them; while Tu-tsong, drowned in voluptuousness, was uninformed of his own losses. But his days proved short, as he died in the twenty-fifth year of his age, after reigning only ten, and left three young children: the second A. D. 1275. of these was raised to the throne. The empress, who governed for him, sent an embassy to the Tartars to entreat for peace on any terms; but received a most haughty refusal. The Tartar general at the head of two hundred thousand men, pushed on his conquests, and seizing the person of the young emperour in the second year of his reign, sent him into a desert of Tartary called Cohi, where he died. Twang-tsong, his elder brother, was next placed on the throne; but A. D. 1277. by the rapid advance of the Tartars, he was compelled to embark on board his fleet, with his court and about an hundred and thirty thousand that remained with him, purposing to retire into the province of Fo-kyen. But from the closeness of the pursuit was driven to the coast of the most southern province of the empire, Quang-tong; where he died in the second year also of his reign. Ti-ping, his youngest brother, and the last remaining of the family of Song, succeeded him. This child, only eight years old, being A. D. 1279. then on board his fleet, was forced to an engagement with that of the Tartars; in which the prime minister entrusted with the care of the emperour, seeing his ship surrounded, took him in his arms, and leapt into the sea. An example which was immediately followed by the rest of the grandees, and the distracted empress: and it is asserted, that on this distressfull occasion, not less than an hundred thousand Chinese perished, either by the sword or in the sea. This catastrophe occurred near Canton. Thus ended the dynasty of Song, and with it the Chinese dominion. For Shi-tsu, before called by the Chinese, Ho-pi-lye, the fourth son of Genghiz Khan, the

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founder of the empire of the western Tartars, took possession of his new conquests, and was the first emperour of the Tartar dynasty. Shi-tsu when he had ascended the throne, took the most direct mode
A. D. 1281. of reconciling the Chinese to his government, by adhering to their ancient laws, his own equity, his regard to learning, and by his parental love to his subjects: and the Chinese to this day stile the reign of his family the wise government. He confirmed all persons in the posts and dignities which they held under the preceding reign. But of this grace many of the nobles refused to accept, and resigning at once all capacity of continuing usefull to those around them, preferred death to servitude, though sweetened with honour: a choice more to be condemned for the unbending pride which it betrayed, than applauded as a proof of magnanimity. The third year of this monarch's reign was marked by the loss of an hundred thousand men in a storm at sea, as they were proceeding to invade the Japan islands. In the same year, Shi-tsu caused all the books of the impious sect of Tau to be burned. Having at first fixed his residence in the capital of the province of Shen-si, but afterwards removed it to Pe-king. On being informed that the barks which brought the tribute from the southern provinces often suffered shipwreck by coming by sea, he had dug the celebrated grand canal of China, which extends three hundred leagues; and by which nine thousand imperial barks transport at a small expense the annual tribute of grain, rice, silk, &c. to the court. This emperour died
A. D. 1296. when he had reigned fifteen years over China; and having previously, to his inconsolable grief, lost his only son, he was succeeded by his grandson, Ching-tsong. The mildness and good sense of this prince, both mitigated the severity of the Chinese punishments, and lessened the taxes with which several petty princes began to load the people.
A. D. 1309. After a reign of thirteen years he died, in the forty-second year of his age, leaving for his successor his nephew, Vu-tsong; who gained equal applause by his mildness, generosity, and patronage of literature. He deemed it good policy to prohibit under the severest penalties the exportation of the precious metals, grain, silk, and some other articles of commerce, and reigned but four years; when on his
A. D. 1313. death he was succeeded by his brother, Jin-tsong, still more remark-

able for his princely virtues, great penetration, and application to business. He is said to have rewarded with generosity, and punished with reluctance. He restrained his petty princes from hunting during those months, when the fruits of the earth might be damaged by their sport. He gave extraordinary encouragement to merit and abilities. After a reign of nine years he died, and left the throne to his son, A. D. 1322. Ing-tsong, who appeared to inherit with it all his father's virtues; but died in the third year of his reign by the hands of some villains, who dreaded punishment for their enormous crimes. To him succeeded the eldest son of King-hyen-tsong, named Tay-ting; who A. D. 1325. on his accession not only put the assassins to severe deaths, but exterminated their families. During the general distress which was in his reign occasioned by earthquakes, inundations, droughts, and conflagrations, he gave signal proofs of humanity and generosity. But he wisely excluded from his dominions all the bonzas of Tibet, who were accustomed to come thither in swarms to the great burthen of his people. He reigned but five years, and on his death the states of the empire chose his second son for his successor; but he justly averring that the crown belonged to his elder brother, Ming-tsong, who was then in Tartary, they sent for and proclaimed him emperour. On his accession he gave a grand entertainment, but in the midst of it was suddenly stricken with death; when his brother who A. D. 1330. had refused the crown, was elected. This prince, whose name was Vent-tsong, proved wise, except in receiving into his palace the Lama of Tibet, and suffering his nobles to pay him honour on their knees; and himself presenting him with wine which was haughtily received without the least acknowledgement. After a reign of three years Vent-tsong died, and was succeeded by Ning-tsong, the son of his elder brother; who having reigned but two months is not reckoned in the succession. His elder brother Shun-ti, was next placed on the A. D. 1333. throne, and proved the last of this Tartar race who reigned in China. These, enervated by the pleasures of the fine country which they had conquered, were no longer equal to the Chinese, who through adversity had become brave and warlike. Shun-ti himself, though of great parts, was lulled into indolence by his prime minister; and by sending for the lamas of Tartary, rapidly introduced into his palace

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idolatry and magic, with lewdness and debauchery. In the fourteenth year of his reign a Chinese, named Chû, who had been a servant in a monastery of bonzas, engaging with a numerous company of revolters, became their chief, and made great advantages of the then present juncture. His extraordinary success drew numbers of the Chinese to his standard; when crossing the Yellow River without opposition, he reduced every place that opposed him, and at length cut in pieces the imperial army. The emperour was then obliged to flee towards the north, where he died in the thirty-fifth year of his reign. With this emperour ended the Tartar dynasty of Y-wen, which was succeeded by that of Ming, founded by the above-named

A. D. 1368. Chû, who on ascending the throne assumed the name of Tay-tsu. This conquerour was received with general applause, and fixed his court at Nan-king. The conquest of Pe-king, and the enactment of some wholesome laws to secure the publick tranquillity, confirmed the approbation expressed of him; and his court was soon crowded with embassadors, especially from the south and east of China. Tay-tsu proved a monarch of great penetration, wisdom, and piety; but suffered himself to be overwhelmed with grief at the death of his son, on whose education he had bestowed peculiar care, and for whom, contrary to his own law, he mourned three whole years. After a reign of thirty-one years, he was on his death succeeded by his

A. D. 1399. grandson, Kyen-ven-ti, only thirteen years old. This young emperour gave early symptoms of a good disposition; but the jealousy of his uncles, with the intrigues of the deceased emperour's prime minister, quickly excited great disturbances in the empire. Young-lo, in particular, his grandfather's fourth son, to whom had been given the sovereignty of Pe-king, took up arms against him, and after defeating the imperial army, and rejecting the terms of peace offered him, unless the emperour's ministers were delivered to him, advanced to the royal residence; when the gates of the city being treacherously thrown open to him, he perpetrated a most shocking slaughter, and reduced to ashes the imperial palace, in which the young monarch perished. But his half-burned body being snatched from the flames, was brought to the conquerour; whose heart then relented, and with a flood of tears he commanded it to be interred with all the honours

due to his rank; but his resentment against the ministers continued undiminished. Many of them he put to most cruel deaths; while others chose to kill themselves, or to escape his fury in the habit of bonzas. On seizing the crown this usurper assumed the name of Ching-tsu, and though much dreaded from the cruelties which he had committed, proved a generous and magnanimous prince. He compelled a great number of bonzas, who had taken the habit before they were forty years old, to quit their convents, and ordered all the books of chemistry which treated of the immortalizing liquor to be burnt. In the seventh year of his reign, he removed his court from Nan-king to Pe-king. He was a patron of learning, and caused some expositions of the ancient classical books to be published.* Having reigned twenty-three years, he was on his death succeeded by his son, Jin-tsong. This prince soon manifested his compassion and liberality, by sending speedy relief to the province of Shang-tong, when suffering from famine; but he was so addicted to astrology, that it remains uncertain whether his death were not accelerated by the influence of that superstition on his mind. For having after a whole night's observation found, or thought he found some extraordinary change in the heavens, he sent for his two chief ministers, and telling them his life was at an end, gave them some signal marks of his gratitude for their fidelity; and ere his son, who was immediately summoned from Nan-king, could arrive to receive his last directions, he had expired in the forty-eighth year of his age, having reigned only a few months. Swen-tsong, the son who succeeded him, repulsed the Tartars; and some years after the king of Cochin-China whom he had nominated to that dignity, being slain by a band of rebels, these immediately implored the emperour's pardon by an embassy; when Swen-tsong, conscious of his inability to chastise them by force, accepted their submission with marks of favour.

A. D. 1403.

A. D. 1426.

A. D. 1427.

* This monarch's disregard of what did not appear immediately usefull, was exemplified, when some fine precious stones from a mine lately discovered being brought to him, he ordered it to be closed again, because it only fatigued his people with useless toil; while the stones, however valued, could neither feed nor clothe in times of scarcity.

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About which time the imperial palace having taken fire, burnt so violently for several days, that great quantities of gold, silver, copper, tin, and other metals, being melted, formed together a mass of mixed metal, which, like that which is said to have been made at Corinth, has been highly esteemed ever since. After a reign of ten years
A. D. 1437 Swen-tsong died, and was succeeded in his throne by his eldest son, Ing-tsong, only nine years old, under the guardianship of the empress, and the eunuchs of the court. In the first year of his reign he rebuilt the nine gates of the imperial city, and in the third forbade any honour to be paid to Confucius in the idol temples. In the mean time, the Tartars taking advantage of his youth, made continual inroads into the northern provinces; but in the fourteenth year of his reign he led a powerful army against them; yet in this expedition his forces being weakened by want of provisions were totally defeated, and he himself being taken prisoner was carried into the most distant part of Tartary. The court, in the greatest consternation at the disaster, placed his son, only two years old, on the throne, under the guardianship of the emperour's brother, King-ti, who with a great though not uncommon degree of iniquity soon usurped the imperial authority. In the mean time, the empress having sent to ransom the emperour, the Tartars brought him to the frontiers; but there pretending that the ransom was not sufficient, or as has been suspected, bribed by the emperour's brother on the throne, carried back into Tartary. But an agreement being soon after made for his release, some of the grandees repaired to the frontiers to receive him; but the Tartars protested against the smallness of the retinue sent to accompany so great a monarch, and insisted that a greater number should come with greater pomp. The emperour however sent the court word, that he renounced the empire, and would end his days in solitude; and accordingly to avoid all ceremony, he entered the capital by a private gate. Here the brothers having embraced, King-ti with his whole court attended him to the south palace, which he had chosen for his retreat. King-ti had now resolved to declare his own successor, but was opposed in this by the prime minister. The young prince dying in the course of the next year, and he himself being seized with an incurable disease, Ing-tsong was again

brought to the palace, and re-ascended the throne a year before his brother's death. On his decease he manifested his resentment of his usurpation no otherwise than by ordering his funeral obsequies to be performed only as for an emperour's brother. After which he A. D. 1465. reigned seven years, and at his death left his crown to his eldest son by his second queen, Hyen-tsong. This proved a warlike prince, defeating the wandering Tartars who invaded his dominions. After a reign of twenty-three years, he was, on his decease succeeded by his A. D. 1488. eldest son, Hong-chi, who assumed the name of Hyau-tsong. This emperour was much addicted to the bonzaic superstition; yet in the eighth year of his reign, one of the most considerable of its priests having taken the lead in a rebellion, was, on his capture, executed without regard to his function. At this time the Divine chastisements seem to have fallen with particular weight on the Chinese empire. In the western provinces a famine is stated to have raged so violently, that parents were induced to eat their own children; while the eastern were ravaged by a grievous pestilence. Neither was the latter end of this reign less remarkable for the depredations which the Tartars committed in the empire. From the sight of these calamities, the emperour was relieved by death. When his son, Vu-tsong, succeeded him. This proved an obstinate and debauched prince, who rejecting all counsels for alleviating the sufferings of his subjects, impelled them to take arms, with which, having once assumed them, they spread devastation wherever they came. In the thirteenth year of his reign, Vu-tsong would have marched against the Tartars, but one of his principal ministers dissuaded him from a step deemed so dangerous. Diverted from this purpose he conceived that of retiring into the southern provinces; but this was opposed,* as having the

* Of the opposition made on this occasion by the ministers, to the *will* of the sovereign, an anecdote is related, highly characteristick of the singular reverence with which the emperour of China is addressed. "He was, it is said, so exasperated at the opposition, that he suffered them (his ministers) to continue on their knees five whole days before his palace, notwithstanding the inclemency of the weather," and as the circumstances are reported, we are left to suppose, that they might have continued so still, had not a sudden inundation excited the fears of the monarch, and induced him to recede from his intention.

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appearance of a disgracefull flight. After a reign of sixteen years, Vu-tsong died, having named for his successor his second son, Shi-tsong, or Ry-atsing, and appointed the empress his guardian.

A. D. 1522. This young emperour commenced his reign with some beneficial acts, but betrayed much weakness in his superstitious disposition; yet from his army the Tartars received a very severe defeat; which drew from their king an apology for his conduct. About the thirty-fourth year of his reign the Japanese not only shook off their dependence, but made a descent in the province of Che-kyang; when the invaders were either destroyed or compelled to retreat to their ships. A repetition of the attempt was made the next year with a larger force, which was all cut off; yet even this prevented not some subsequent attempts with similar success. Towards the close of his reign, Shi-tsong received a severe memorial on his ill conduct, and particularly on his extravagant search after the immortalizing liquor; at which, though highly offended at first, on a second reading he manifested some symptoms of remorse. All proofs of the reality of this were however precluded by his being quickly taken ill, when drinking the pretended liquor of immortality, and dying of that

A. D. 1567. illness, he was succeeded by his son, Mo-tsong, otherwise Shen-tsong; who began his reign with acts of clemency, but was little inclined to listen to the advice of his ministers. Being seized with illness in the sixth year of his reign, he took the precaution of appointing for guardians to his son, then but ten years old, the empress and one of his chief ministers, named Chang-kyu-ching, and soon after died. The young prince, whose name was Van-lye, on his accession assumed that of Shin-tsong, and manifested both an excellent disposition, and prudence much superior to his years. In the seventh year of his reign he married; and three years afterwards so dreadfull a famine occurred, that a multitude of people perished through hunger; and were buried in pits so large that each contained a thousand dead bodies. The same year was marked by a very considerable defeat of the Tartars, as well as by the death of the prime minister, Chang-kyu-ching; to whose memory the emperour at the time paid singular marks of honour. The Tartars having, in the eleventh year of his reign, taken advantage of a severe frost to pass the rivers, and ravage

the Chinese territories, were most of them cut off. A famine which ensued led Shin-tsong to apply for the Divine mercy by supplications; yet he refrained not from the transgressions which he was admonished had drawn on him that judgement, but punished with great severity those who remonstrated with him. About the twenty-first of this monarch's reign, the Japanese, after having made an irruption into Corea, ravaged the country, and expelled the king, and being, after he had obtained succours from the emperour, in their turn defeated by him, sent an embassy to beg of Shin-tsong his pardon, and request him to bestow some title on their chief. Both requests were granted: the title of king of Japan being given to him, with express orders to send no more embassies to China. The eastern Tartars, who had been divided into seven principalities, were now re-united, after a long and bloody war, under one sovereign, who laid the foundation of a new kingdom. In the forty-fourth year of Shin-tsong's reign, the king of the Tartars, named Tyen-ming, incensed by the insolence of the Chinese mandarins, and their treachery in seizing and putting to death his father, resolved to reduce some of the Chinese cities, and entering the province of Lyau-tong, took that of Ray-ywen; yet at the same time transmitted to the emperour his complaints, offering to restore the city, and lay down his arms on receiving satisfaction for so cruel an injury. Through the advice of the mandarins no notice being taken of this offer, the Tartar prince became so exasperated, as to vow that he would sacrifice two hundred thousand persons to the spirit of his murdered father; and he accordingly marched an army into Pecheli to attack the imperial city: but meeting with a repulse he retired into Lyau-tong, and assumed the title of emperour of China. Two years after which, having drawn the Chinese forces further towards Tartary, he surrounded them with dreadfull slaughter, in which fell their general. The year following the emperour himself opposed him with a powerfull army; but after a long and obstinate battle the Tartars, proving victorious, by marching directly towards Pe-king, threw the court into such consternation, that the representations which his ministers made of the disgrace and discouragement which such a step would prove, alone prevented the emperour from retiring into the

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southern provinces. Under these misfortunes he died, and was succeeded by his son, who on his accession assumed the name of Tay-chang; but died in a month, having previously appointed his

A. D. 1621. eldest son to succeed him, and he took the name of Hi-tsong. This, though a timid prince, and governed by the eunuchs, made a vigorous opposition to the Tartars: he fitted out a powerfull fleet, sending to Macao for Portuguese engineers to serve his artillery; but ere they arrived, the enemy were expelled from the province of Lyau-tong. Tyen-ming having terminated another war in which he was engaged in Tartary, again marched into China, and renewed the siege of the capital, and after losing twenty thousand men got possession of it by treachery. No sooner was he master of it, than he issued an order for all the Chinese on pain of death to shave their heads after the fashion of the Tartars; rather than comply with which order some thousands chose to lose their heads. In the mean time one of the Chinese generals cut off the communication between China and Tartary; and it appears that afterwards the capital returned to its old masters. The third year of Hi-tsong's reign was dreadfully disturbed by multitudes of robbers, whose numbers and rapines daily

A. D. 1368. increased; and in the seventh died the emperour, and was succeeded by his brother Tsong-ching, since called Whay-tsong. In the course of the same year died Tyen-ming, the king of the Tartars, to whom succeeded his son Tyen-tsong. Whay-tsong, the last emperour of the Chinese race, proved a lover of science and a favourer of the Christians, and he was endowed with most of the qualities requisite to accomplish a sovereign. The revolters increasing in the provinces, while his troops were opposing the Tartars, he sent to negotiate a peace with them; but the general employed on this business, named Y-wen, proved treacherous, and when the emperour refused to ratify a disgracefull treaty which he had concluded, he poisoned the commander-in-chief of the Chinese forces, and directing the Tartars to march to Pe-king by a road in which they would not encounter the imperial troops, they arrived at the capital without opposition, and laid siege to it. Y-wen himself being ordered to march to its relief, suspected not that his treachery was discovered; when on his arrival he was seized, tortured, and strangled: on which the Tartars

retreated into Lyau-tong. Whay-tsong was in the eighth year of his reign, when the crown of Tartary descended to Tsong-te, a prince of mild disposition, who having been brought up privately among the Chinese was perfect master of their language, genius, and customs; which procured him the affections of the great men of China, who gradually deserted the emperour, now become from his ill success diffident and cruel. The numbers in rebellion at length increased sufficiently to form four different armies, under as many generals; who were however soon reduced to two, named Li and Chang. In endeavouring to drown the former of these while besieging the city of Kay-song, the capital of the province of Honan, by breaking down the dykes of the Yellow River, one of the imperial commanders laid the city itself under water, and destroyed about three hundred thousand of its inhabitants, while Li and his army had time to escape to the mountains. This leader afterwards marching into the provinces of Shensi and Honan, put to death all the mandarins, and exacted large sums from the officers in place, but freed the populace from all taxes: by which he drew over to him so great a portion of the imperial army as to make him think himself sufficiently powerfull to assume the title of emperour. Having done this he marched to the imperial city; which, though strongly garrisoned, was divided into factions, and into which he was able to introduce a number of his own men to open the gates to him. This they did, and he entered the city at the head of three hundred thousand men: while the emperour, ignorant of what was passing, was shut up in his palace busied with bonzaic superstitions: yet soon finding himself betrayed, and abandoned by the few guards which were about him, and preferring death to falling into the hands of his rebellious subjects, he so impressively signified to his empress their desperate situation, that she hung herself in a silken string, and he having first cut off his daughter's head, hung himself; and his prime minister, queens, and faithfull eunuchs, soon followed his example. The rebel Li treated the body of the unfortunate emperour with the utmost indignity, and put to death all his ministers, and two of his sons; his eldest only escaping by flight. U-sang-ghey, a prince who commanded the imperial forces in the province of Lyau-tong, was the only

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person who refused to acknowledge the usurper's authority. To revenge the death of his own father, whom Li had most cruelly murdered, and that of his sovereign, this faithfull general concluded a peace with the Manchew or eastern Tartars, and invited them to his assistance; and Tsong-te, their king, immediately joined him with eighty thousand men. On which the usurper after first plundering, and then burning the palace at Pe-king, fled with his spoil into the province of Shensi. Scarcely had Tsong-te set foot in China, than he was cut off by death, having previously declared his son Sunchi, then but six years old, his successor, and committed the care of both him and the empire to his brother Amavan. The young prince was soon after conducted to Pe-king, and received by the people as their deliverer. This revolution put an end to the twenty-first dynasty, and
A. D. 1644. the Chinese government, and introduced a second time that of the eastern Tartars. Of the traitor Li and his fate, nothing further is known. Sun-chi or Xun-chi, began his reign by bestowing on U-san-ghey the dignity of king, and assigned to him for his residence the capital of Shensi; yet U-san-ghey discerned and repented of his errour in calling in the Tartars; which he significantly termed sending for lions to drive away dogs. In the mean time, the young emperour began to prepare for the reduction of the southern provinces. Still not deeming it prudent to leave behind him unsubdued the kingdom of Corea, inhabited by a warlike people, with a monarch of their own, though a vassal of the Chinese, he marched against them, and compelled the king, after a brave resistance, to save his crown by submission; and ordering him to follow him to Pe-king, there settled the conditions of peace, received his homage, and permitted him to return to his country. In the south in the mean time a grandson of Shin-tsong, the thirteenth emperour of the foregoing dynasty, had been proclaimed emperour under the name of Hong-quang or Hun-quan; and was a prince of many amiable qualities, and considered as the last resort of the Chinese; but it was with great difficulty, that the mandarins prevailed on him to accept a crown, which he saw he could not defend; however, being prevailed on, he took the proper steps to fortify Nan-king his capital, and to reinforce his army. Still he was not able to resist the Tartars, who

quickly reduced the city, and Hong-quang being overtaken in his retreat, was either immediately slain by the Tartar general, or sent to Pe-king, and there strangled. The province of Che-kyang next submitted to the conquerours; but in that of Se-chwen, which with those of Fokyen, Quan-tong and Quan-si, were the only four which remained unsubdued, another grandson of the late emperour Shin-tsong, named Long-vu by some, and Jan-van by others, was proclaimed emperour, and though not capable of recovering what was lost, still hoped to preserve what he actually possessed, especially as he was supported by a valiant naval commander, named Chung-chi-long, who being joined by many of the nation, had then considerable power: at his own expense this man had equipped a considerable squadron, and was followed by such numbers of Chinese vessels, that he had the command of one of the most formidable fleets, that ever appeared in those seas. With this he openly declared for the young Chinese monarch, whom he resolved to defend to the last. With which intent he sent an embassy to Japan to obtain succours; but those were refused, because the request was not made by the emperour: yet not discouraged he made a noble defence, and it was not until after several well contested battles, that he was taken prisoner, and sent to Pe-king. In consequence of the unfortunate Long-vu being deserted by the cities that had hitherto adhered to him, he fell into the hands of the Tartars, and was at once deprived of his crown and his life. On this occurrence, Ching-chi-long, to diminish the unpleasantness of his situation among the Tartars, declared himself for their interest; while his fleet continued under the command of his son, Ching-chi-kong, of whose loyalty to the imperial family of China he was well assured. Against the few provinces that yet held out for that family a powerfull army was sent. The general of which, having reduced Fokyen by a detachment, had the like success in the province of Quang-tong; but in Quan-si a very vigorous resistance was made by two commanders who were Christians, and who having given the Tartars a total defeat, proclaimed a new emperour of the Chinese family named Young-lye, the king of the metropolis of the province of Quey-chaw, and removed his court to Shau-king, or Xau-chin in Quan-tong. This

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success revived the courage of the Chinese in other provinces; several cities were recovered from the Tartars, and on the sea coast, Ching-ching-kong gained several great advantages over them; but he at length received a total defeat, and was so completely driven out of China, that he was induced to direct his views to the island of Formosa, whence he hoped to expell the Dutch, and erect a new kingdom. The cause of the new Chinese emperour was espoused by others in various parts of the country, who continued a brave, but in the end an useless resistance. And one leader in particular, named Chang-hyen-chang, restrained not his opposition within any bounds of moderation, but committed in every part of the country which he entered, the most barbarous ravages; so that when he was slain, not only his army was dispersed, but the people of the province in which he fell, readily submitted to the Tartars. These by their many miscarriages were reduced at length to have recourse to stratagem to overcome the opposition of a numerous people struggling for their liberty; and partly by bribes, partly by exciting jealousies between the Chinese commanders, they in a few years recovered all the places which they had lost, and compelled the Chinese forces to submit: and Young-lye found himself obliged to retire into the province of Yunnan. In the year sixteen hundred and fifty-one died the Tartar monarch's uncle and guardian, to the great regret of even the Chinese; with whom his great humanity had rendered him so popular, that he may justly be considered as the person who chiefly fixed the Tartar family on the throne of China. On his decease the prince, being fourteen years old, was deemed capable of assuming the reins of government, which he no sooner did, than by his affability, moderation, and the unexpected regard which he paid to the ancient laws, he gained the hearts of his subjects, whom he would not permit even to learn the Tartarian language without his license. He retained their six supreme tribunals, and ordered that there should be a Tartar and a Chinese president in each. He rectified abuses, shewed favour to the Chinese, and loved, and encouraged learning. It is said too, that he conferred favours on some of the jesuits, who greatly improved the Chinese observatory, and who by the royal indulgence were permitted to have built at Pe-king two

handsome churches. Five years after Shun-chi had taken into his own hands the administration of affairs, the first embassy from the czar of Muscovy reached Pe-king; but from the embassador's refusing to submit to the Chinese ceremonies, it met with no favourable reception. After which arrived one likewise from Holland, the miscarriage of which has been supposed to have been owing more to the influence of the jesuits, than to any want of compliance on the part of the embassador. Three years after this, Ching-ching-kong otherwise called Coxinga, laid siege to the city of Nan-king; but indulging his forces in a general carousal on the anniversary of his birth, the enemy took advantage of the opportunity to make a midnight sally, by which the siege was raised;* but to revenge this disgrace, Coxinga immediately sailed to the attack of the Tartar fleet, which he defeated with very great loss on their side. Perceiving, however, that the Tartars still gained ground, he turned his views to another enterprize, and sailing for the island of Formosa with a fleet of nine hundred vessels, took from the Dutch the islands of Pengu and Tay-wan; where leaving a sufficient number of vessels to guard this acquisition, he proceeded to his final destination, Formosa; where, after four months vigorous defence, the Dutch were compelled by famine to surrender; yet he permitted them to carry off their effects, while he established his new kingdom over that part of the island which is now possessed by the Chinese. In about a year this brave partizan was taken off by death, leaving his lately acquired dominion to his son, Ching-king-may, of less active spirit. The Tartars had by this time overcome most of their opponents, and Shun-chi's sole competitor for the throne, the unfortunate Young-lye, having taken refuge with the king of Pegu, the menaces of the Tartar sovereign induced that monarch to deliver him up: when he

* Of this siege the following anecdote is recorded: that a council of war being assembled by the viceroy, who was a young Chinese mandarin, a Tartar chief declared, that the city could not be defended, unless its numerous inhabitants were destroyed. To which the governour replied, "If that be the case, you must begin the butchery with me," which magnanimous answer stopt the Tartar's mouth, and saved the lives of some myriads.

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was by the Tartars conducted to Pe-king, and strangled; but his mother and consort were honourably treated, and lived and died in that Christian faith which they had learned from the jesuits. Shun-chi, now having conceived a criminal passion for a young married lady, treated a Tartar lord, her husband, with such indignity as to break his heart, and quickly after he made the widow his empress. By her he had a son whose birth he celebrated with great rejoicings; but the same Divine hand rules in China, which manifested itself in Judah, the child died in three months, and in a short time after the mother; with which losses the emperour was so affected, that had not his mother and the eunuchs interposed, he would have slain himself. After the then Tartarian custom, he ordered thirty men to be sacrificed to the manes of his empress; and having burnt her body, and deposited her ashes in a magnificent style, he resigned himself to grief, and to the superstitions of the bonzas; and in a few days was reduced to an hopeless state. The reasonings of the jesuit who waited on him on this occasion, and was heard with patience, and treated with the usual kindness, were fruitless. Shun-chi commanded four lords of his court to attend him, and after having in their presence made a confession of the particulars in which he conceived he had acted inconsistently with his duty, he appointed them guardians to his youngest son, Kang-hi, whom he declared his successor, though only eight years old. Then calling for his imperial mantle, and putting it on, he exclaimed, "Now I leave you;" and expired in the twenty-fourth year of his age, and the seventeenth of his reign. Kang-hi, who ascended the throne the next day, was equally happy in his own good qualities, and in his four guardians, whose chief study it was to render permanent the prosperity of the empire. They began the exercise of their power by driving from the palace all the eunuchs but a thousand, whom they retained to be employed in the meanest offices. Of their next measure, which was merely defensive, it may be doubted, whether it was not attended with as much evil as good. For they commanded all the inhabitants of the coast to retire three leagues within land, and absolutely prohibited all maritime commerce; by which, while the power of the great sea commander, Ching-ching-chong, was much diminished, the fishing

trade of the subjects of China was still more affected, and unnumbered families were reduced to want. A severe edict was then issued against the Christian converts; their churches were demolished, and had not father Schaal, the jesuit, employed all his friends to prevent it, the city of Macao would have shared the same fate. For this interposition he and three of his fraternity were some time after imprisoned, and loaded with irons, on a representation made by one of the literati against the missionaries, and their religion; and shortly after both were totally suppressed. In the fifth year of Kanghi's reign died the chief of the four regents; when the emperour took the government into his own hands, and at that early age (for he could then have been only thirteen), it was said, that he began to give evident tokens of those talents which rendered the sequel of his reign so glorious. In the year sixteen hundred and seventy, Portuguese embassadors arrived at the Chinese court, and met with an honourable reception, which contributed greatly to the establishment of that nation in the city of Macao. In the following year father Verbiest was appointed president of the mathematical board, and having instructed the young emperour in that branch of science, he represented to him the injustice done the Christians, but could obtain no more than the recall of the missionaries, and a declaration from the assembly of mandarins, that the Christian religion taught nothing that was evil, or tending to sedition; but they were forbidden to build churches, and the Chinese to embrace Christianity. In the year sixteen hundred and seventy-four Usang-ghey, who had invited the Tartars into China, and had since been made sovereign of a small principality, considering himself as become sufficiently powerfull to deliver his country from the yoke which he regretted, he had been instrumental in imposing on it, assumed independence, and formed a powerfull alliance against Kang-hi; but this being soon dissolved by jealousies between the parties, Usan-ghey was left alone to support the cause: when age on the one part, and grief on the other, put an end to his life. Still though all the provinces which had joined in the revolt were reduced by the Tartar forces, Usan-ghey's youngest son, Hong-wha, was declared emperour by his partisans in the year sixteen hundred and eighty. In September in

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the same year a dreadfull earthquake happened at Pe-king, which overturned not only a great number of publick buildings, but even the towers and walls of the city, and many thousands were killed. Towards the end of the same month the imperial palace was set on fire, and in a few hours reduced to ashes, with enormous loss. The ensuing year was marked by the execution of the kings of Quang-tong and Fo-kyen, who had joined in the revolt of Usan-ghey, as well as by the death of Hong-wha, who had been declared emperour in the province of Hun-nan. Not content with whose fall the Tartars dug up the bones of his father Usan-ghey, and after exposing them in several publick places in Pe-king, burnt them to ashes. The whole fifteen provinces of China being now completely subjugated to the Tartars, Kang-hi resolved to visit his native dominions of eastern Tartary, which he accordingly did, and the year after those of the western: a practice which he afterwards repeated annually, not solely with a view to hunting, but for the exercise of his troops, and securing the allegiance of the dependent princes. In sixteen hundred and eighty-two the grandson of Coxinga, then king of Formosa, was obliged to surrender that island to the Chinese, and repair to Pe-king; where a title of honour was conferred on him, and a small government. And in sixteen hundred and eighty-four two eminent missionaries, Gerbillon and Pereyra, were employed in assisting to settle the limits between the empires of China and Russia; and as they with some others of their society instructed the emperour himself in the mathematicks, they had interest enough with their imperial pupil, to obtain a decree allowing the free exercise of the Christian religion throughout the whole empire. Forty-seven years had

A. D. 1709.

Kang-hi reigned in tranquillity and happiness, when by the intrigues of his eldest son his second was brought under such suspicion, as to cause him to be suddenly loaded with chains, and his children and chief officers to be involved in the same disgrace; but on examination being found innocent, his elder brother was condemned to perpetual imprisonment; yet the second was soon after deprived of all his titles and privileges for a real conspiracy against his father. In the year seventeen hundred and sixteen the emperour revived two edicts against the Christians, prohibiting their erection of churches, and

making proselytes, and obliging every missionary to take out an imperial patent containing, among other particulars, an engagement not to return into Europe. Nor could any relaxation of these obligations be obtained. Four years after this Kang-hi received the congratulations of his subjects on a signal victory over the Eluths, who possessed the country of the Lamas, and had committed dreadfull ravages for four successive years; by which victory the kingdom of Tibet fell into the hands of the conquerour. In November of the same year a Russian embassador made his publick entry into Pe-king, and was graciously received by the emperour; though this last refused to grant the chief object of his mission, the establishment of a free commerce between the empires, and leave to settle factories in the principal provinces of China. These Kang-hi restrained to two, one at Pe-king, and the other at Schu-kou-pai-sing, on the frontier of the Kalkas.* The Chinese in the island of Formosa having the next year revolted, were soon reduced by fresh troops from China, who slew most of them. The emperour being seized with a menacing illness declared his fourth son his successor, and expired in A. D. 1722. the sixtieth year of his reign. Yong-ching, the new emperour, was at his accession forty-five years of age. In his brothers, who were numerous, he placed no great confidence, except in the thirteenth; most of the rest fell under his displeasure. Several of the princes and great men he sent into exile for favouring the missionaries, and he discarded from his service all the fathers except one, who was an excellent painter. On the whole, however, he was a prince of

* This embassador hesitated to comply with the ceremonial of the Chinese court, on introduction to the imperial presence, lest on his return home he might be punished for having compromised the dignity of his own sovereign; but the sensible monarch of China, perceiving this difficulty, desired that he might be informed, that it was his intention, that the same honour should be paid to the letter which the embassador was to deliver to him from his master, which the Chinese laws required to be paid to the emperour's own person: for which end he desired he would place that letter on a table, that the emperour might send one of his chief mandarins in his name to strike his forehead on the ground before it. With this his excellency readily complied, and made no difficulty to pay the same honours to the emperour which this last had done to the letter of the czar.

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excellent qualities, who governed for himself. Neither could any man be more feared than he was, as no one could be more absolute. Most indefatigable was he in devising laws for the benefit of his subjects; and the most certain step to his favour was, to lay before him some project for the publick good. Which done, he would spare neither pains nor cost to execute it; yet such was his severity against the Christians, that he degraded no fewer than eleven princes and sixteen princesses, and sent them into miserable exile, in a desert part of Tartary, for having embraced that faith. In excuse of this severity it has been urged that the influence which the missionaries acquired over the minds of their converts was of a very dangerous nature, and that some of the doctrines which they taught were subversive of every civil institution. In seventeen hundred and thirty the emperour lost his thirteenth brother, who had shared with him the burthen of the government, and whose death was occasioned by excessive application. In November, the following year, the city of Pe-king was nearly destroyed by a severer earthquake than had ever occurred in China. So violent were the shocks, that, in less than a minute, more than an hundred thousand inhabitants were buried in the ruins of their houses; and a still greater number in the country, where whole towns were utterly destroyed. This catastrophe the emperour, humbling himself before Heaven, acknowleged to be a judgment brought on by his misconduct; he advanced considerable sums for the relief of the survivors who had suffered; and, in particular, gave an handsome present to the missionaries towards the repair of their churches; yet next year those missionaries who had been driven from the provinces into the city of Quang-tong, were banished from thence to Macao; being accused of having in open defiance of the imperial prohibition preached the Christian religion. Yong-ching died in seventeen hundred and thirty-six, or five, as others say. He was succeeded by his son, Kien-long, whom he had previously declared his heir. Though initiated into literature this prince had received no instruction in respect to government. Still he did not blindly confide in those ministers whose assistance he found necessary. The effects of his sweet and benevolent disposition were soon experienced by his subjects. He released from prison, or delivered

from exile, all the princes of the royal blood, whom his father had condemned to those punishments; yet he published an edict for the punishment of all who would not renounce Christianity. The ability of the mathematicians led him to tolerate them at Pe-king; still they were forbidden to make converts of the Chinese, and open became the persecution. A memorial to the emperour by the jesuit Castiglione, noticed above as skilfull in painting, obtained a short suspension of this; but in the year seventeen hundred and thirty-seven, the storm was renewed, a bishop and four Spanish dominicans were put to death, and all the governours of provinces were commanded to search for those who taught Christianity. After many commotions and civil wars in the country of the Eluths, Kien-long was happy enough to see the party which he supported triumphant, and his commanders reduce to his obedience five-and-twenty hordes; but after he had regulated their government and appointed four khans to command them, they again revolted, and massacred the officers and soldiers placed among them. This led to severe retaliation, and some of their country being laid waste, twenty thousand families migrated into Russia; but one branch of the Eluths returned afterwards to their ancient masters; an event which brings the Chinese history at least to the period proposed for the close of the present work. A. D. 1760.

The History of Corea resumed.

The story of Corea was before brought down as low as the year six hundred and twenty-eight of our æra, when the traitor, Kay-su-ven, having assassinated his sovereign, placed Tsang on the throne with the title of Molichi, reserving the power to himself. The Chinese emperour, Tay-tsong, informed of his treachery led against him a powerfull army, with which he defeated a large one of the Tartars; the generals of which he pardoned, yet most inconsistently it should seem, buried three thousand of the less culpable troops alive. Kay-su-ven, dying was succeeded in his power by his son, Nan-song; and the Chinese troops being sent into Corea, it was again subdued, and divided into five provinces, containing six hundred and ninety thousand families. About the year six hundred and eighty-seven, the grandson of Tsang was made king of Chau-tsyen, to which the name of Corea had been changed from that of Kau-ti. In this state the government of that country continued till the reign of one of A. D. 670. A. D. 937

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its kings, named Van-kien, who assumed the dignity of an independent sovereign, and subdued the kingdoms of Pet-si and Sin-lo; yet his three successors paid homage to the Chinese emperour. The successors of these during the contests between the northern and southern sovereigns which divided China, proved of such importance to the contending parties, as to be able to make their own terms with either. In the twelfth century, Shi-tsu, the son of Genghiz Khan, intending to pass through Corea in his route to his purposed conquest of Japan, ordered the embassador which he was previously sending to that island, to take guides in Corea; but the Coreans not consenting to this, Shi-tsu, so deeply resented their refusal, that though Ching had never neglected to pay his tribute, he seized on Si-king, or Pin-jam; but on Shin's succeeding his father Ching, he married a daughter of the emperour, and received the title of king of Corea. When in the year thirteen hundred and sixty-eight, Kong-vu, founder of the Ming dynasty, ascended the Chinese throne, Kyuor-chew, then king of Corea, was, on sending an embassy of homage to him, allowed that dignity, and granted the privilege of sacrificing to the gods of the rivers and mountains of that kingdom; but in the seventeenth year of that emperour's reign, the king's embassadors being implicated in a conspiracy against him, the Coreans were declared enemies; yet this difference was soon compromised, and the emperour sent to purchase horses in Corea. When the king declining to take any money for them, the emperour paid for them on a valuation; but at the same time insisted on two towns in the province of Lyau-tong, which the Coreans had seized, being restored. Soon after this Kyu was deposed, and Vang-chang raised to the throne by Ly-jin-jin, prime minister of Corea. Whose son Li-ching-que, following his father's example, dethroned Vang-chang, and set the crown on the head of Vang-yau, and quickly transferred it from

A. D. 1592. his to his own. Ping-syew-kyi, chief or king of Japan, finding it recorded in the annals of that country, that Corea had formerly been rendered tributary to Japan, thought it a proper time to revive the pretensions to that peninsula, with the further view of opening a way to the conquest of China. He accordingly sent an embassy to demand of the Coreans a passage through their country; at the

same time insisting, that they should acknowledge the emperour of Japan for their sovereign, and pay him homage; but the Coreans slew his embassadors, which induced him to accelerate his premeditated attack. Accordingly he sent to Corea a numerous fleet with two of his generals; who landing unperceived took the city of Sonta, and several others; the Coreans enervated by a long peace fleeing at the approach of the enemy. The king retired into the province of Lyau-tong; whence he sent an embassy to the emperour of China to beg his assistance, and that he would receive him as a subject, promising to make Corea a province of the empire. The Chinese succours arrived but slowly, and the Japanese had already made themselves masters of the greater part of the kingdom, plundered the treasury, and taken the mother, children, and officers of the king; they had likewise fortified the capital, and posted their troops advantageously for advancing, still pretending that they had no design on the empire. At length after some of their advanced troops having been cut to pieces, a Chinese general, named Song-ing-chong, was sent with sixty thousand men, who detached an inferior officer through Lyau-tong. The difficulty which the cavalry with this officer, whose name was Ly-yu-song, found in passing a mountain in his march, was so great, that the horses are said to have sweated blood. After this Ly-yu-song having overreached the Japanese general by a lye, made his way, after a severe contest to the capital of Corea, which was retaken. On which the Japanese monarch sent an embassy of submission to the emperour of China; who agreed to accept the tribute which he offered, on condition that he should restore all his conquests in Corea, send no embassy to China, and swear never to enter into the peninsula; but being afterwards insulted by the king of Corea, and unable to obtain redress from him through the Chinese emperour, he once more invaded Corea, and his generals pushed their conquests so far, that the Chinese capital was in danger of being blocked up, and an army sent against one of them defeated with the loss of twenty thousand men. The Chinese again attempted to succeed by treachery, but were justly frustrated, and every where worsted. When the Japanese monarch laid a tribute on the Coreans, and died himself as his forces were returning home;

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thus putting an end to the war, after it had lasted seven years; but the Coreans again revolted to the Chinese Tartars, and expelled the Japanese garrisons, except those on the coast of the province Tsio-tsijn. With the possession of this eastern coast the emperours of Japan appeared satisfied, and for the security of their own dominions kept garrisons in it. Whilst these Coreans are only obliged to send an embassy to court to take an oath of allegiance to every new emperour. As for the rest of the inhabitants of that peninsula, they continued tributary to the Chinese. When the sovereign of Corea dies the emperour immediately deputes two grandees to confer on the successor the title of Que-vang or king, who receives the investiture on his knees, and makes to the commissioners certain specified presents, and is obliged afterwards to send an embassador to the Chinese court with the usual tribute of homage; which [illegible] is rendered by prostration and knocking the forehead on the ground before the imperial throne. If the Corean king apprehends any dispute about the succession, he nominates his heir, and obtains the imperial confirmation: and extreme is the subjection in which these kings are kept to the Chinese emperours.

The History of Japan resumed. A. D. 628.

It was at the end of the reign and life of the empress Syko that the history of Japan was last suspended. To her succeeded Dsiome, grandson of the emperour Fit-atzu. In the third year of his reign a comet was seen for some time, and in the twelfth a star is said to have been observed in the moon. He reigned twelve years, and left the crown to his widow Kivogoku, the adopted daughter of the emperour Fit-atzu: who after a reign of three years was succeeded by Kootuku, her younger brother. He was the first Japanese monarch who honoured the officers of his court with titles and marks of distinction according to their rank. He reigned ten years, and was succeeded by Sime, the emperour Kivogoku's daughter, who reigned only seven years, when Ten-tsü, son of the emperour Dsiome ascended the throne. In the fourth year of his reign a famous temple being erected, and its chief idol carved by a celebrated sculptor of the time, the artist received the extraordinary reward of being sainted for his skill. Ten years was the extent of Ten-tsü's reign, after which Ten-mu, his younger brother, inherited the throne.

A. D. 642.

A. D. 655.

A. D. 662.

A. D. 672.

This prince experienced great opposition from a still younger brother, named Oto-mo-no-oase, then at the head of a numerous army, but after a five months contest he was successfull against him and obliged him to rip up his own belly. In the third year of his reign silver was brought over from an island belonging to the Coreans; and it is said, that in the seventh, hail stones fell as large as peaches. In the thirteenth a violent earthquake was felt, and in the next the emperour died. His decease occasioned fresh troubles about the succession, notwithstanding which Tsito, the widow of Ten-mu, and A. D. 687. his niece succeeded to the throne, on which she sat ten years, and was succeeded by Mon-mu, Ten-mu's grandson; who first granted A. D. 697. heraldic insignia to each province. In the ninth year of his reign he took the wise and just measure of sending into all the provinces a standard measure for the sale of grain. This emperour had for his successor Genmei, daughter of the emperour Ten-tsü. In the first A. D. 708. year of her reign she ordered gold and silver to be coined; yet in the next prohibited the latter. She reigned seven years; and at her A. D. 715. decease another princess, Gen-sioo, grand-daughter to the emperour Ten-mu, ascended the throne. Her reign was marked by fictions of appearances of several of the Japanese imaginary deities, and in the first year of it she made some regulations for the dress of her own sex. After sitting on the throne nine years, she resigned it to her A. D. 724. brother's son, Sio-mu. In the eighth year of whose reign, it is reported, that the sea coasts of Kü had the appearance of blood for five whole days; and the next year the land was afflicted with violent storms, a great drought, and a scanty crop, which caused famine in some parts of the empire. In the thirteenth year of his reign the small-pox proved very fatal. And in the sixteenth he began to build the first nunneries. Having reigned twenty-five years, he was succeeded by his daughter, Koo-ken. In the first year of her A. D. 749. reign was presented to her gold dug in the mines Oosio. She reigned ten years, and her successor was Fai-tai, Ten-mu's grandson, A. D. 765. of whom only successive removals of his court are recorded. After a six years reign he was succeeded by Seo-ta-ku, eldest daughter of the A. D. 770. empress Koo-ken; who having reigned five years left the crown to Koo-nin, grandson of the emperour Ten-tsü. There happening in

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the second year of Koo-nin's reign a tremendous storm of thunder and lightning, he ordered solemn feasts and processions in all parts of his dominions, to appease the evil spirits which the Japanese suppose to have the command of the air and fields. After wearing the crown twelve years he was succeeded by his son, Kwan-mu. In the sixth year of his reign a foreign people, not Chinese, but of a more distant country, invaded Japan, whom the natives used their utmost endeavours to expell, but, as they were supplied with recruits, without success for nine years; when a renowned general, named Tamaman, defeated them in several actions, and slew their chief commander: yet they were not entirely suppressed until the eighteenth year after their arrival: Kwan-mu reigned twenty-four years; and was succeeded by Fei-dso, who reigned but four, and had for his successor his younger brother Saga, whose reign was rendered remarkable by the number of temples and monasteries erected during it all over the empire. Saga was succeeded by his younger brother, Siun-va, who had for his successor his own second son, Ni-mio or Nin-mio. And he was succeeded by his eldest son, Mon-ta-ku; in the fourth year of whose reign several violent earthquakes occurred in Japan. This monarch left the crown to his fourth son, Sei-va; in the fifth year of whose reign the books of Confucius were first brought, read, and approved at the imperial court. Sei-va having reigned eighteen years resigned his crown to his son, and survived the abdication only four years. On Josey Sei-va's eldest son, to whom his father resigned the crown, it sat so heavy, that he in a short time lost his senses; when the prime minister thought fit to depose him, and place on the throne Koo-ko, the second son of the emperour Ni-mio. Having reigned but three years this prince was succeeded by his own third son, Vola; in the second year of whose reign the land suffered much from a superabundance of rain. After a ten years reign he left the crown to his eldest son, Day-go; in the first year of whose reign, on the third day of the sixth month, it grew so dark, that the people could not see each other; but whether a fog or an eclipse produced this effect, is not said. Day-go reigned thirty-three years; and had for his successor, Siu-za-ku, his own twelfth son. Mossakaddo a prince of the royal blood rebelled in the second year of this reign,

A. D. 782.
A. D. 810.
A. D. 824.
A. D. 834.
A. D. 851.
A. D. 859.
A. D. 877.
A. D. 885.
A. D. 888.
A. D. 898.
A. D. 931.

and after a seven years civil war he was defeated and slain. In the third and seventh years of it violent earthquakes were felt; and most of it was disturbed with storms of thunder and lightning, which reduced to ashes a great number of temples and monasteries. Seu-za-ku, was succeeded by his brother Murakami, who after reigning A. D. 947.
twenty-one years left the crown to his second son, Ren-sei; who wore A. D. 968.
it but two years, and was succeeded by his younger brother, Jen-vo; A. D. 985.
who reigned fifteen, and left the crown to his nephew, Kwassan, the son of the late emperour, Ren-sei. This prince having reigned scarcely two years, was seized with a fit of superstition, left his palace in the middle of the night, and retired into a monastery, where he was shaved, and dedicated himself to a retired life. Immediately after his abdication, Itsi-dsio, his cozen, and son of the late emperour, Jen-vo, succeeded him. His reign has been remarked for A. D. 987.
the number of learned men that then flourished at the court; but in his eighteenth year a mortality raged throughout the empire. After a reign of twenty-five years this prince was succeeded by San-dsio, A. D. 1012.
second son of the emperour, Ren-sei, who reigned five years. Go-itsi-dsio, or Itsi-dsio the second, succeeded him; in the fifth A. D. 1017.
year of whose reign, Sai-siu obtained his permission to be drawn about in a covered chariot by a pair of oxen: which new fashion was followed by the whole ecclesiastical court. In his sixth year a grievous pestilence raged in most parts of the empire; and in the month of his twelfth year corresponding to our June, there fell snow sufficient to cover the ground to the height of four feet. This prince was succeeded by his younger brother, Go-siu-saku, or A. D. 1037.
Siu-saku the second; in the fifth year of whose reign there was a violent earthquake. After a reign of nine years, this emperour left A. D. 1046.
the crown to his eldest son, Go-rei-sin. In the thirteenth year of his reign a rebellion was excited in the province of Osjü, which continued for five years, until the crown general defeated the rebels, and slew A. D. 1069.
their two principal leaders. Having reigned twenty years, Go-rei-sin was succeeded by Go-san-dsio; who after a reign of four years left A. D. 1073.
his crown to his eldest son, Süra-kava. In the ninth year of this reign a great drought occurred, and the emperour after having A. D. 1087.
reigned fourteen years was succeeded by his second son, Fori-kava. He A. D. 1108.

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reigned twenty-one years, leaving the crown to his eldest son, Toba. This prince, after reigning sixteen years, was succeeded by his eldest son, Siu-taku; who reigned eighteen years, and had for his
A. D. 1142. successor his youngest brother, Kon-jey, the emperour Toba's eighth son, in the sixth year of whose reign appeared a comet. At this period civil war raged between four of the most potent princes of the empire, and though a crown general has been already mentioned, we are told that in the eighteenth year of this reign, the first who bore that office, and whose name was Joritomo, was born. The same was afterwards selected by the Dayro to go at the head of a powerfull army, and terminate the war between the disputants. This crafty general, abusing the confidence placed in him, readily espoused the interest of that party which was most likely to support his own; by which means he became so powerfull, that he was at length able to strip the Dayro of the secular power, and to entail it on his own posterity. Kon-jey reigned fourteen years, and was succeeded by his elder brother, Gossü-rakava. In the very first year of whose reign revolted Issi-ju, and occasioned a bloody war. In the third year of his reign an earthquake occurred, soon after which the emperour resigned his crown to his eldest son, and about twelve years after turned monk. Nidsio, that son was then but sixteen; and in the first year of his reign, two of his generals, Nobujori and Jositomo, the father of Joritomo, rebelled against him; the latter of whom was killed two years afterwards, and his son banished.
A. D. 1166. Nid-sio reigned seven years, and left the crown to his eldest son, Roku-dsio, then only ten years old, and who died in the third year of
A. D. 1169. his reign. On whose decease the third son of the late emperour Gossi-rakava, named Takakura, was raised to the throne. In the seventh year of his reign the small-pox was very fatal all over the empire; and in the twelfth the enemies of Joritomo were defeated in the province of Isju; and Joormasso, the Japanese Hercules, was destroyed with his whole family. Taka-kura having reigned twelve
A. D. 1181. years, left the crown to his eldest son, An-toku. In the first year of whose reign the badness of the crop, conjoined with the civil wars, produced a grievous famine. An-toku, after a disturbed reign of three years, was compelled to resign the crown to a fourth son of the

emperour Takakua; and about two years after was drowned in the western sea, when fleeing from some of his enemies. Go-Toba, or Toba the second, having ascended the throne, in the twelfth year of his reign, Joritomo came to Meaco to pay his respects to the Dayro, A. D. 1184. and obtained from him the title of say-seourn, or grand general of the crown, the same title with Cubo. He then assumed the command of the imperial forces, and soon after the chief administration of the secular power. To this title, enjoyed by all who are raised to that A. D. 1325. dignity, was added that of Day or high lord, as they became more powerfull: for they did not strip the imperial monarchs of every branch of secular authority till the time of Taycho, but were content with gradually usurping it. Joritomo, though not the first who abused this important trust, may be considered as the first who made a successfull attempt on this branch of the imperial prerogative, and who found means to entail this ill-gotten power on his posterity. Go-toba, reigned fifteen years, and then resigned his crown to his eldest son, Tsut-si, who A. D. 1199. was but eight years old, when he succeeded his father, and Joritomo died in the first year of his reign, leaving his power and dignity to his son, Jori-tje, who was killed two years after his accession to it. Tsut-si A. D. 1211. reigned twelve years, and then resigned the crown to his younger brother, Siun-taku. In the sixth year of his reign the first ships of war called Fune, were built in Japan by order of Sonnotomo, the second son and successor of Joritomo, who was then endeavouring to maintain himself in his post of sey-seoguro by force of arms. This emperour reigned eleven years, and then resigned the crown. To him succeeded Go-Forigara, grandson to the emperour Takakura, who reigned also eleven years, and was succeeded by his eldest son, A. D. 1233. Si-dsio, who reigned ten, being on his decease succeeded by Go-Saga, the second son of Tsu-tsi; who, after reigning only four years, left his crown to his second son, Go-Sikah-usa, in the eleventh year of whose reign a violent earthquake occurred. He reigned thirteen years, and resigned his crown to his younger brother, Kame-jamma, in the year twelve hundred and sixty. In the seventh year of whose reign appeared a comet, which was seen also in China. He reigned fifteen years, and then resigned the crown to his eldest son, and lived thirty-two years after his resignation. Gouda succeeded him, in the A. D. 1275.

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nineteenth of whose reign the Tartar general Mooko, as he is called by the Japanese historians, appeared on the coasts of Japan with a fleet of four thousand sail, and two hundred and forty thousand men; for the then reigning Tartar emperour Sysu, after having completed the conquest of China, resolved on that of Japan also. This expedition was frustrated, it is said, by a violent storm, which destroyed that numerous fleet. Gouda reigned thirteen years, and was

A. D. 1288. succeeded by his cozen Fusimi, son of Fikakusa the second. This emperour had a son born in the first year of his reign, to whom he

A. D. 1299. resigned his crown in the eleventh. Gosusimi, that son, died after a reign of three years, and was succeeded by the emperour Gouda's eldest son, Go-nidsio, who reigned only six years; at the end of that

A. D. 1308. period resigning his crown to Fannasonno, younger brother to

A. D. 1319. Fusimi, who reigned eleven years, and resigned likewise to Go-daygo, Go-nidsio's brother: in the reign of the latter of whom much blood was shed in civil wars. Daygo, after a reign of thirteen

A. D. 1332. years, resigned the crown to Kwo-gien; in the second of whose reign, Tay-kads, then Seogun or secular monarch, came to pay his homage to him. Kwo-gien, after wearing the crown two years, returned it to his predecessor, Go-daygo; three years after whose resumption of the throne, the isle of Niphon was shaken with a violent earthquake.

A. D. 1337. Go-daygo was lastly succeeded by Quomio, the fourth son of the emperour, Fusimi the second: the Japanese historians differ as to the duration of Quomio's reign. He was however succeeded by

A. D. 1349. Go-muracormi, Daygo's the second seventh son, who was succeeded by Siuk-vo; in the first year of whose reign an end was put to the war called Sidjo Navatto. He reigned but three years, and had for

A. D. 1152. successor his younger brother, Go-kwogien in the fourth year of whose reign Takaudsi, the then crown general, was sent by the monarch to quell some tumults in the province of Ormi. Kwogien

A. D. 1372. reigned twenty years, and was succeeded by Go-jinsu; in the eighth year of whose reign a grievous famine raged throughout the empire, and in the same year appeared a comet. This emperour left his

A. D. 1383. crown to his eldest son, Gokomatz; in the ninth year of whose reign a war raged in the country of the Udsü; and in the twentieth a comet appeared, which was followed by an excessive drought during

the summer and autumn, and by several violent earthquakes in the next winter. In the twenty-second year of his reign a mountain at Hansuo, in the province of Simotski, began to burn, and throw up fire, stones and ashes; and the twenty-fifth year of this reign was marked by excessive rains, which were followed by storms and earthquakes. Having reigned thirty years he was succeeded by his A. D. 1413. son, Seo-kwo. In the fourth year of this prince, Uje, of the family of the Suggi, rebelled against him; yet he sat on the throne sixteen years, and was succeeded in it by Go-Funna-so. In the year of his A. D. 1429. accession appeared a very large and tremendous comet, and another in his eleventh year; and during the seven last years of this reign the Japanese historians mention many strange and terrifick appearances in the heavens, which were followed by famine and pestilence, which raged all over the empire. This monarch reigned thirty-six years, and was succeeded by his son, Go-tsutsi-mikaddo. In his A. D. 1465. first year appeared a comet, the tail of which appeared to be about eighteen feet long, in the next were felt several dreadfull earthquakes, while the third was very pernicious to the empire, in the prevalence of commotions, wars, and desolations. Tsutsi-mikaddo, reigned thirty-six years, and was succeeded by Kasiuvabora. In this reign A. D. 1501. too, comet and famine are again noticed, but such repeated recurrence of these evince so much superstition in the recorders, that I conceive the reader will readily pardon my passing over some that are mentioned. In the eighth year of this reign the title of Sey-day-seogun was bestowed on Josütaune, the twenty-first in descent from Joritomo; who four years after went to pay his homage to the emperour. This prince reigned twenty-six years, and was succeeded by his son, Gomara. The commencement of this reign was marked A. D. 1527. by the conclusion of a grievous war between two great princes, Fossokava and Kadsuragava; the former of whom, two years after put an end to his own life, in the accustomed but slovenly way of the Japanese, by ripping up his belly. During this reign the empire was twice visited with a severe pestilence, thrice with vast rains, and inundations, and once with a general storm, so violent as to blow down a prodigious number of buildings throughout the island, and in particular the imperial palace. Gomara reigned thirty years and

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was succeeded by his son, Ookimatz; whose reign began with a grievous drought and famine. In the eleventh year of it Josütira was raised to the dignity of secular monarch in lieu of his father, who

A. D. 1558. had killed himself. In the sixteenth Kamio, which is the upper part of the city of Meaco, was set on fire by incendiaries, and the greatest part of it, with the imperial palace was burnt down. In the twenty-fifth, the famous Nobunanga, Sey-day-seogun, and his eldest son were killed at Meaco; and the next some embassadors arrived from the Riuku or Laqueio island. In the twenty-eighth, Fide Josi, was by the emperour raised to the dignity of Quanbuku, which was the next to that of the dayro. It was this man who stript the emperours of the last remains of secular authority, and made himself absolutely independent of them in all secular affairs, except the payment of a kind of homage once in three, four, or five years. In this year too there occurred a violent earthquake, and frequent, though less violent shocks continued through the greater part of the following; in

A. D. 1587. which Ookimatz resigned his crown to his grandson, Go-josei. In the third year of this prince's reign, Fide Tsugu, nephew of Taycho-samma (a name assumed by Fide Josi the Quanbuku), a cruel and bloody prince, killed Foodsjo, a revolted tributary king in the province of Sagami, and extirpated his whole race, according to the Japanese rules of war, and next year he was invested with the title and dignity of quanbuku. In the sixth year of this reign, Taycho-samma carried the war into the peninsula of Corda, with a view, as pretended, of afterwards conquering the empire of China. In the twelfth year this ambitious commander assumed the title of Tay-cho, or great prince; having at length obtained the supreme and absolute power and command over all secular affairs. He died the same year leaving his son and successor, Fide-jori, to the care of one of his favourite counsellors. In the same year a mountain rose out of the sea in one night's time, near the rocky island of Fatsino, whither the grandees in disgrace are commonly banished: in the twenty-first year an embassy from China arrived, sent to compliment the secular monarch, or as the Chinese historians pretend, to present him with letters patent, and the title of king from the Chinese emperour. In the twenty-fourth year the Riuku, or Laqucio isles, were subdued by

the prince of Satzuma, a tributary, from which time they have been deemed to belong to the empire. Go-jôsei after reigning twenty-five years was succeeded by his son, Day-seo-kwo-tey. In the third year of his reign, Fide Jori, was deprived of his life by the treacherous Jejas, who usurped his dignity, and himself died in the fifth year of his reign, and left the secular crown to his own son, Fide-tada. In the tenth year of his reign the emperour married with great pomp, Fide-tada's daughter. After reigning eighteen years, Day-seo-kwo-tey resigned the crown to his daughter, yet he lived to near ninety. Niote or Siote, having acceded to the crown, in the third year of her A. D. 1630. reign died Fide-tada, the secular monarch, and soon after his son and successor, Jemitz, paid homage to the princess. In the seventh year of her reign the Chinese were permitted again to trade, though not to settle at Niphon. By this time the Christian religion, had been propagated with such surprising success throughout the empire, and was embraced by so many petty princes, that it had already kindled a general persecution against them; and one of the most A. D. 1637. sanguinary that ever was known in any age or country; and in the eighth year of this reign the famous rebellion of the Christians took place at Simabara, in the province of Fifen, which brought on the utter extirpation of all who professed the faith. The secular monarchs, were the chief agents in both, and that more through their own inclinations and interests than by any direction from the ecclesiastical throne. The twelfth year of this princess's reign, was attended with a grievous famine, and great mortality, and in the fourteenth she resigned the crown to her younger brother, Go-kwo- A. D. 1643. mio. In the eleventh year of his reign the imperial palace was set on fire, and great part of it consumed, together with several stately temples and other publick edifices; and in the same year died the emperour, and was succeeded by his third brother, Sinin. In the A. D. 1654. third year of his reign a fire broke out at Jeddo, the residence of the secular monarch, which continued burning for several days, and reduced to ashes the greater part of that capital. In the eighth is said to have occurred an earthquake, by which a mountain in the province of Oomi was sunk so deep, that not a vestige of it remained above ground. Sinin dying after a reign of eight years, was

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succeeded by his younger brother, Kinsen or Teysen. This prince in the third year of his reign established a court of inquiry in all the cities, towns, and villages, throughout the empire, to examine what

A. D. 1663. belief or the doctrine of what sect each family and each individual of it professed.* The remainder of this reign was marked by little else than conflagrations, famines, and mortality; and when he had filled the throne twenty-four years, Kinsen resigned the crown to his

A. D. 1687. son, Kinso-kwo. Having thus stated the story of the spiritual sovereigns of Japan as far as I have yet found it, to finish this abridgment of the history of the empire, I will lay before the reader the following notices of the secular monarchs. The time has been already mentioned when Joritomo laid the foundation of the secular monarchy. Of his successors in this to the twenty-ninth of them, a bare list only of their names and the course of succession is given, which, as totally uninteresting, is here omitted; but of Fide-josi afterwards styled Taycho or Taycho-somma, something may be stated. This individual, who is said to have been the first who really deserved the title of secular emperour, was a peasant's son. By what means he raised himself to that height of wealth, power, and credit, as to be at length created by the dayro himself, quanbuku or vicegerent of the empire is not known; but his valour and the service he did his country in suppressing the pyrates and quelling several feuds and rebellions on land, are confessed by all to have rendered him worthy of his good success. Notice has been taken of several crown generals who raised themselves to an excessive height of

* This examination is generally taken at the close of the old year; after which they proceed to that which they deem the more important ceremony—the Jesumi, or figure-treading. This is performed by trampling on a crucifix. Even the children that are not capable of performing it, are holden up in the arms of some relation, and made to touch the figure with their feet. This ceremony soon after the abolition of Christianity was ordered to be performed in every place belonging to the Japanese empire, on the second day of the year, which immediately followed the general enquiry abovementioned, and which finished, the pictures were locked up in a box, and preserved by the magistrate until the next year; but they have since much abated this rigour, and only compel strangers or suspected persons to perform the Jesumi.

secular power. But one more particularly at the latter end of the sixteenth century, the then emperour's second son, stript his father of all his secular authority; however this bold step proved more beneficial to the empire, than to the secular emperour himself, as it laid the foundation of a new form of government, highly conducive to the peace and happiness of it, before much interrupted by revolts and seditions; but whether the dayro submitted by force or willingly to the change, it was not to be expected, that the other princes of the empire would sit contented under it. It was indeed for the sake of suppressing the frequent wars and rebellions which arose among these, that the dayros permitted the crown generals gradually to usurp authority so great. It was no wonder then, that the most powerfull of the other princes should unite their forces against an upstart and dangerous adversary, and they accordingly opposed the crown general with such exertions as quickly opened the way to that final blow which the abovementioned Tacho gave to their unrestrained tyranny. This remarkable revolution occurred about the year fifteen hundred and eighty-three; when it was evident to the penetration of Taycho, that these tributary kings and princes, were by their mutual hostilities, as well as by their opposition to the cubas, so weakened, as to be unable to make any more than a feeble resistance to the numerous forces he could bring against them: for by his office he was authorized to raise whatever number of men he pleased, and to compel the tributaries to furnish their quotas under the penalty of military execution. Equally dreaded for his wisdom and his courage, by the former no less than by force of arms, in the space of ten years he accomplished their reduction, and made himself perfectly master of the empire, as to the princes of it: his next task was to restrain the insolence and unruliness of the common people; and this he effected by laws so severe against all revolt and insurrection as effectually deterred them from embarking in any. After having gained the authority which entitled him to it, it was that he took the title of taycho or sovereign lord, and began to plan new regulations for establishing his government on a foundation so firm, that it should not be easily shaken. Among these were the exclusion of all foreigners, particularly the Portuguese, who were become very

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powerfull, rich, and numerous;* and the total extirpation of Christianity; but as this was a work of time, he was obliged to leave it to be finished by his successor, and died in fifteen hundred and ninety-eight, leaving the government to his son, Fide-jori. This child being entrusted to the guardianship of the faithless Tjejas-samma, a favourite counsellor of his father, was, when he arrived at the age of twenty, put to death by him, under the pretence of his being a favourer of the Christians. The traitor being thus at full liberty to pursue the measures which Taycho had planned, banished from the country all foreigners, but the Dutch; forbade all subjects of the empire to leave their own, and recalled all settled in a foreign country; prohibited cards, dice, duels, luxury, and profuseness in either dress or table, and all foreign delicacies, as impediments to the practice of virtue and continence. The abolition of Christianity appeared far the most difficult of his undertakings, and such as was completed only by the most horrid butcheries. This began with a
A. D. 1586. proclamation against the Christians, and several persons were executed for not conforming to the contents of it; yet of so little effect are these examples said to have been, that in the course of four years more than twenty thousand persons were put to death; and yet after their churches had been shut up, they made more than twelve

* The Portuguese in Japan were grown so rich by a flourishing trade, as well as by marriages with the natives, as to have concerted some treasonable measures for making themselves masters of the empire. This design appeared from two letters full of dangerous projects; one intercepted by the Dutch, *then at war with the Portuguese*, and another sent by the Japanese then settled at Quantong. Several other circumstances appeared still more to their disadvantage; such as the contempt which the new converts manifested for the gods, religion, and priests of their country, the great veneration which they had for their own, the vast number of proselytes they daily made, and the flaming zeal they shewed in defence of their new faith; but above all, the extraordinary joy and exultation that had appeared in the looks of all the new converts, a little before the said letter was intercepted, and the haughtiness and insolence with which some of the prelates behaved towards persons of distinction, heavy complaints of which were made at court. Such is detailed as the evidence of the conspiracy; in all the circumstances of which, if the reader sees no testimony more cogent than appears to the copier, he will think the Portuguese might have been perfectly innocent of any treasonable practices, in spite of all the charges of their enemies and rivals in commerce, the Dutch.

thousand new proselytes, and the Japan writers do not disown, that not only Fide-jori, Taycho's own son, but the greater part of his court, soldiers, and military officers were of that number. These zealous converts readily submitted to the most cruel tortures with such extraordinary constancy, as struck their bitterest enemies with astonishment and admiration. The persecution continued to rage until the time of Taito-konni, the grandson of Tjejas-samma, who gave the finishing stroke to Christianity in Japan. This last secular emperour reigned fourteen years, and was succeeded by his grandson Fidetada or Taito-konni. When this prince had entirely extirpated Christianity, he did not extend the prohibition on foreigners to trade with Japan to the Chinese, but restrained them to the port of Nanghazaki; yet this privilege, granted chiefly on account of the arts and sciences, and some branches of superstition, was soon after recalled, because they brought with them some Christian books sent by the missionaries, which so exasperated the government, that it was resolved to put them on the same footing with the Dutch, and confine them in nearly the same manner. Fide-tada reigned eighteen years, and was succeeded by his son, Jjemitz. From this time the empire of Japan was entirely closed to all foreigners, and every thing done there was inscrutable, except that through an embassy to Yeddo, in sixteen hundred and ninety-two, the names only of two successors in the secular monarchy, have been brought to Europe, with the length of their reigns. Jjemitz himself reigned twenty-one years, and was succeeded by his son, Jjetznako, who after a reign of thirty years left the throne to his son, Tsinajos; who at the time of the embassy was in the thirteenth year of his reign. He was, it is said, a wise prince, and though a strict enforcer of the laws of his country, eminent for his clemency. He was educated in the politicks and philosophy of Confucius, and his subjects lived in tranquillity under his mild government. While he debarred them from foreign trade, he took care to promote domestick communication between the several islands and provinces of his empire; which he thought was sufficient to make them happy: since his dominions are naturally provided with all the necessaries of life; and improved by the particular industry of his subjects, and the blessings of peace.

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The land of Jedso consists of six islands of the southermost of those called Matmai. Jedso or Yedso extends from forty-two to fifty degrees of north latitude. The Japanese have been masters of it ever since the reign of Joritomo, their first secular monarch. The southern coast of it lies opposite to the northern part of the isle of Niphon. The passage from one coast to the other is but one day's sail, and in some parts not more than thirty miles broad. The trade between this country and Japan consists only in some fine furs, and a sort of fish called karazakki, caught in great plenty about the coasts, and by the Japanese esteemed a great dainty. The account given by these of the natives of Jedso is, that they are a strong and savage people, wearing their hair and beards to a great length. Though a more favourable account of them has also been received, which represents them as a fair and civilized people, and states, that those of the southern part understand commerce; that they are in stature much the same as the Japanese, from whom they have their clothing, rice, &c. making their payments in silver and gold-dust: that the emperour of Japan kept a governour and a garrison at the capital, called Matzimai, and received his tribute in furs, feathers, and silver; and that the natives came frequently over to the north part of Japan to trade in vessels made of boards sewed together with cordage. They are generally acknowledged to be expert with their bows and arrows, and no less skilled in fishing and hunting. This country is said to be rocky, mountainous, and full of forests, for the most part uncultivated, and thinly peopled; producing very few wild fruits and roots, and in some parts a species of barley, of which they make a coarse kind of bread. They are said to worship the heavens, and to have their women in common, and to be much addicted to strong liquors. They are represented as shaving the fore part of their heads, and both men and women to have their ears bored, and as wearing some ornament hanging to them; those of the better sort of silver, and the poorer of coloured silk. They are said to make a kind of wine, which is very strong, and of which they drink great quantities, yet are seldom intoxicated; which circumstance is ascribed to their use of a kind of oil drawn from a fish, with which they season their rice. This fish is spoken of as a very remarkable animal, being in fact a

small quadruped covered with hair, whose feet resemble those of a hog, and yielding this sweet oil, with which they not only season their victuals, but in which they carried on a considerable trade with the Chinese, Japanese, and Coreans, for rice, cotton, silk, and other commodities of which their country is destitute, instead of bartering for gold and silver with which their country abounds. The dress of both men and women is a long gown of silk, cotton, or linen, ornamented with needle-work. Their weapons are bows, arrows, and lances, and a kind of short scymetar. On some occasions they use poisoned arrows, being choleric, quarrelsome, and revengefull. Instead of shield or cuirass they wear coats made of small thin laths. To each other they are very courteous, and ceremonious to excess; their houses, though composed of only four posts, a roof of bark, and sides of boards, with some large apertures at the top, and sides to let out the smoke, and admit the light, are generally very clean. The floor is always covered with mats made by the women, which serve for seat, table, and bed; yet they are far from nice in either dress or food. Their clothes they will wear without washing until they drop off their backs. They season their rice, &c. not only with the oil extracted from the fish above noticed, but with that of the whale; yet they eat out of dishes with two sticks like those used by the Chinese and Japanese. Their language and that of these last people were originally the same. Sometime after the island of Jedso had been subdued by Joritomo, the natives, weary of a foreign yoke, suddenly rose on the garrison left in their capital, and slew them all; but a powerfull army being sent against them procured submission; and ever since strong garrisons have been kept on their southern coast. The rest of this cluster of islands seem to be perfectly independent.

The History of Eastern Tartary.

Of neither of the Tartaries has any notice yet been taken, but under the general name of Scythia. Eastern Tartary is bounded by the Western on the west, on the north by Siberia, on the east by the Eastern Ocean, and on the south by the same sea, the kingdom of Corea, and the Yellow Sea, which separates it from China. It lies between one hundred and thirty-seven, and an hundred and sixty-one degrees of east longitude, and between forty, and fifty-five of north

latitude; extending about nine hundred miles from north to south, and eight hundred and eighty-four from east to west; though but thinly peopled. This extensive region is divided into three great governments; Shin-yang or Mugden, Kerinula, and Tsetsikar. That of Shin-yang, called by the Manchews, Mugden, contains all the ancient Lyau-tong. It is bounded on the south by the great wall of China, and the Yellow Sea; on the east, north, and west, it is inclosed by a palisade seven or eight feet high, the gates of which are guarded by a few soldiers. The capital, Shin-yang, is esteemed by the Manchews, the metropolis of their particular nation. On which account since they conquered China, they have not only adorned it with publick edifices, and stored it with magazines, but fixed there the same tribunals, one excepted, as are at Pe-king; whose jurisdiction extends over the whole of Tartary immediately subject to the emperour. The other cities of the province are of little note, and thinly peopled, with mud walls; though some of them are very well situated for trade, and afford plenty of cotton. Of these, the city of Fong-whang-ching is the best, being the key to the kingdom of Corea and its trade, and lying on the borders of it, hither have repaired a great concourse of Chinese merchants, who have handsome houses in the suburbs. The chief article of trade is cotton paper, very strong and durable, but neither white nor transparent: and yet we are told, that it is used at Pe-king, for the windows in the palace, and houses of fashion. The lands of this province are generally fertile in wheat, millet, roots, and cotton; affording pasture to great numbers of sheep and beeves, with abundance of apples, pears, and nuts. The Eastern part, which borders on the ancient country of the kingdom of Corea, is full of deserts and bogs. The second great government is that of Kirinula, bounded westward by the palisade of Lyau-tong; eastward by the eastern ocean; southward by the kingdom of Corea, and on the north by the great Saghalianula; extending in latitude twelve degrees, and in longitude almost twenty. This country contains only four very ill-built cities; the principal of which is Kerinula, where a Manchew general resides as viceroy. The next stands like the last on the river Songari, here called the Kirinula, and is named Padne, forty-five leagues from Kirinula, and is much

inferior to it. The third city, which the family reigning in China consider as their ancient patrimony, is situated on the Hûrkapira, and is commonly called Ningûta, though its real name is Ningûnta, composed of two Tartarian words, signifying seven chiefs, to express the rise of the Manchew kingdom first established by seven brothers, of the emperour Kang-hi's great great-grandfather. The last city is Putay-ula-hotun, which, though the least of the four, is far the most agreeable, standing in a more fertile and well cultivated plain; it is about eight or nine leagues northward of Kirinula, on the same river. It is reported to be the finest city in all the country, and was once the seat of the Tartar government. The trade of Ningûnta is the more considerable, as ginseng, so highly esteemed by the Chinese, grows only in these countries, and the Yu-pi Tartars are obliged to pay a tribute of sables. Here is abundance of millet, and a grain unknown in Europe, and termed by the Chinese, may-se-mi, as being of a middle kind between wheat and rice. Oats are in plenty, wheat and rice not so. The cold commences sooner in this region than at Paris. The forests are very high, and larger the nearer they lie to the Eastern Ocean. Westward of these woods are fine green vales, watered with rivulets, whose banks produce a variety of flowers common in Europe. Henchun, two leagues from Corea, is the principal village of the Quelku Tartars, at present blended with the Manchew. It is also the end of their country; which is agreeable enough, and, what is rare with the Tartars, well cultivated. The Tumen-ula falls into the ocean ten leagues below Henchun. The Yu-pi Tartars dress like the Manchews, in the Chinese habit; only the bottom of their long robes has commonly a green or red border, on a white or grey ground. The women hang small pieces of brass coin, or little bells at the bottom of their mantles, which notify their approach. Their hair parted in tresses falls on their shoulders, and is braided with bits of looking-glass, rings, and other baubles, which they prize as jewels. These Tartars spend all the summer in fishing; part of what they catch is laid up to make oil for their lamps, part serves for present food, and the rest dried in the sun is reserved for winter provision for both men and cattle. Their sledges are in

winter drawn by dogs. This people are in general of a peaceable disposition; but heavy and unpolished, without any tincture of learning, or the least publick religious worship. They sow neither wheat or rice, but only a little tobacco in plats of ground near each village, on the banks of the river. The rest of the land is covered with thick woods, the swarms of insects from which are so troublesome, that the inhabitants are obliged to drive them away by smoke. The sturgeon constitutes the principal object of fishing to the Yu-pi. They spear large fishes, and take the smaller with nets. Their boats are made of only the bark of trees. Their language appears a mixture of those of their neighbours, the Manchew and Kecking Tartars, between whose territories they are enclosed. The country of the last-mentioned people extends along the Saghalian-ula to the ocean, for near an hundred and fifty leagues, in all which are only mean villages. Their language is by the Manchews called Fiatta, and it is apparently that of the Tartars, who dwell from the mouth of the Saghalian-ula, to the fifty-fifth degree of north latitude, which is in that part the northern boundary of the Chinese dominions in East Tartary. They do not shave their heads, but wear their hair tied with a sort of ribband, or in a bag behind. They seemed more ingenious than the Yu-pi, answering distinctly to the questions put to them concerning the geography of their country. They do not understand agriculture, and they live in huts without a king; though every tribe elects a chief which it obeys; and their canoes are of bark or hollow trees. Inhabited islands lie pretty thick at the entrance of the river, which is there about three leagues wide, very deep, and navigable for vessels of considerable burden, up to Nip-chû or Nuchinskoy, about five hundred leagues distant. To a large island opposite the mouth of the Saghalian-ula, the emperour Kang-hi sent some mandarins, who after surveying two sides of it, returned through want of provisions, and reported that these islanders breed no horses or beasts of burden; but that they saw in several parts a kind of tame stags which drew sledges, and from their description resembled the rein-deer of Norway. Beyond the Saghalian-ula there are only a few villages inhabited by the Ke-ching

Tartars; the rest of the country being a wild desart frequented only by sable hunters. It is crossed by a celebrated chain of mountains, called Hin-kanalin. There are some not inconsiderable rivers. The Tû-hû-rû-pira, which falls into the Eastern Ocean, issues from another chain of mountains in the fifty-fifth degree of latitude; which marks the point whence the rivers flow in different directions. The Udipira runs towards the north sea, and belongs to the Russians; while the Silinsipira passes southward into the country of the Ke-ching Tartars. About the Chikira, which flows into the Saghalian-ula on the north side, and rises in a chain of mountains, which serve for a boundary between the two empires of Russia and China, dwell a people called by the Manchews, Orochon, from an animal named Oron, a small deer which they train to draw their sledges. Elks are common here; fine sables, gray ermines, and black foxes, are found among the Chikiri. The Tartars, called Han-hala, are true Manchews. The emperour, Kang-hi, gave them lands near Ningûta. Their clothing is like that of the Yu-pi; but they have houses and oxen, as well as good harvests, which the others want. These seem to be the same Manchews, which the Russians name Dûchari. In winter they hunt sables in these great forests; besides which and mountains, there is nothing to the east of the river which the Russians call Singula, or Shingala. In the summer they spend their time at home about Ningûta. The Manchews in this part of East Tartary, the Russians call too Bogdoy, and the emperour of China being a Manchew, Bogdoy Khan. They have neither temples, idols, or regular worship, but what is offered to the Lord of Heaven. They pay indeed to their ancestors a superstitious veneration, and some of them, since they have been in China, have joined the idolatrous sects: but generally they are attached to their old religion; revering it as the basis of their power, and the source of their prosperity. In the whole province of Bogdoy, the houses are of earth. The inhabitants carry on a great trade in sable, and black fox skins, and in the ginseng root. In features, shape, and size, they closely resemble the Crim Tartars. The Manchew language, though used at the imperial court, would probably have been lost, had not the Tartars taken great pains to preserve it under the encouragement of the

emperour; yet it is so copious and musical,* that they cannot listen to any of the European languages without signs of contempt and uneasiness. To the language of the Moguls on the west this has scarcely any similarity; of those of the few savage nations on the east and north, they understand nothing. In these parts are to be seen ruins of several cities; and it seems probable, that the monuments of antiquity in East Tartary, were not the works of the Manchews, but of their predecessors the Kin, in the twelfth century. These built towns and palaces in their ancient country, which might fall to decay after their dynasty was overthrown by the Moguls under Genghiz-Khan, and his successors. The third government into which East Tartary is divided, is that of Tsitsikar, which is by some called Solon, the name of some of its inhabitants. It begins at the confluence of the rivers Ergona or Argun, and the Saghalian-ula; along the latter of which it extends above an hundred and fifty leagues towards Ningûta; but it is said, that there were not more than ten thousand families in the whole province. The people are expert hunters, and pay their tribute in sable skins. They are of three tribes, the Manchews, Solons, and Tagûri. The last nation, which is not very numerous, submitted to the Manchews, in the reign of the father of the emperour Kang-ti, that they might be protected against the Russians, when passing in armed barks out of the Saghalian-ula into the Songari-ula. The Tagûri are a robust people, and have been accustomed to sow grain and build houses, though surrounded with tribes which take not that trouble. They are by one traveller described as governed by their own chief, though under tribute to the Chinese emperour. Their huts are made of

* The last of these qualities is said to be found also in the language of the Turks. Of the copiousness of the Manchew tongue, proof is produced by stating, that, besides the names for each species of animals, they have terms to express their several ages and qualities; but it should seem, that the remarkers of this as so singular, overlook the great variety of names for different species of dogs with which our language abounds. In having indeed twenty times as many appellatives for a horse as they have for a dog, they certainly surpass us; and justly is it remarked in a nation that have had no more intercourse with foreigners, that it is difficult to conjecture whence they collected this multitude of terms.

cane; they are said to worship the devil. They are of a middle stature, and broad faced like the Moguls. Their summer dress is of blue China calico, and tanned leather; in winter they wear sheep-skin coats. Their language differs very little from that of the Tungûzians of Siberia; they cultivate chiefly barley, oats, and millet. Their cattle are principally horses, dromedaries, beeves, and sheep. The last are very fine and large, with tails resembling those of the sheep of Barbary. They ride on oxen, and are very expert archers. They make abundance of bows, which being esteemed the best in Tartary, bear an high price. The Solons are as to origin Eastern Tartars, descended, they say from those who escaped from the general destruction of the nation by the Moguls in twelve hundred and four. They are more robust, brave, and skilfull, than the other inhabitants of these parts. Their women ride on horse-back, drive plough, and hunt. The missionaries in seventeen hundred and eleven, saw a number of these people set off for hunting from a prettly large town, not far from Tsitsikar. They were clad in short jackets, of wolves skin, with caps of the same, and had bows at their backs. They had with them horses laden with millet, and long cloaks made of fox or tyger's skins to defend them against the cold at night. Their dogs are trained for the game, climb well, and are aware of the wiles of the sable. In this province besides towns and villages are three cities, Tsitsikar, Merghen, and Saghalian-ula-holon. The capital Tsitsikar, a new city, was built by Kang-hi, to secure his frontiers against the Russians. It is situated near the Nonni-ula, a considerable river falling into the Sangari, inclosed with a strong palisade lined with a pretty good rampart. The inhabitants are mostly Chinese drawn thither by traffick or banished for crimes. The inhabitants of this city and the six southern villages are called Doari, and the Dori by the Tartars. They have lands very richly manured; all sorts of garden fruit, and plantations of tobacco. By their own account they are all conjurors, who nightly invoke the devil with frightfull cries. To their dead they give two burials; after the first, they leave an hole in the grave, through which the relations daily convey victuals and drink to the deceased. This is done for several weeks, at the end of which they bury the body

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deeper in the ground. They live in houses of earth covered with reeds or small bambûs. The walls within are plastered with lime; in the middle stands a pillar wound round with the entrails of beasts, and by them are hung a small bow and arrows, pikes, and other arms. To all these from time to time they bow and prostrate themselves. Their houses are but one room high, and that undivided. About one half is covered by a bench, which runs round the walls about an ell high, and two broad, covered with red mats. Under this bench passes a funnel, so that the fire being made at one side of the door, the smoke enters the funnel, and passes out at the other side. The natives are generally well shaped, and dress like the Manchews in China; and they live in such submission to the mandarins sent from thence, that the secretary of those officers seize both their wives and daughters, at their pleasure. The bounds of this government to the west, and on the side of Russian Tartary, are two rivers of a moderate size, the mouth of one of which falls into the Saghalian, at a point from which it is computed to be fifty leagues to Vipchu or Nerchinskoy, the first Russian city almost under the meridian of Pe-king, and in fifty degrees forty-five minutes north latitude.

History of the Empire of Kitan.

The empire of China had from very early times been menaced with invasions, and its northern provinces had been actually ravaged by the nations bordering on it to the north west, known to the Chinese by the name of Tata, Tatse, and Tangu. The fear of these occasioned the erection of the famous wall built by the emperour Tsin-si-vang-ti; yet it was the tenth century, ere any considerable portion of China was conquered by them; but in this the Kitan of Lyau, after subduing their neighbours in Tartary, invaded the empire, and having reduced some of the northern provinces, founded a new monarchy, their king still residing in Lyau-tong. These Ki-tan were a people of Eastern Tartary dwelling to the north and north-east of Pecheli in China, particularly in Lyau-tong, and in the above-mentioned century, they had subdued all the country between Corea and Kashgar; besides several northern provinces of China. This large dominion is the celebrated Katay, or rather Kitay, so little known to Europeans. As it was divided into two parts, one

much inferior to the other in all respects, that which belonged to Tartary, was for distinction sake, called Kara-Kitay: for the situation of which authors have been much at a loss. As for that of Kitay itself, this strictly taken, contains only the northern provinces of China, subject to the Kitan. The empire of the Kitan began in Lyau-tong, where they had two royal seats, Tong-king and Pe-king, that is, the eastern and the northern courts. The first is the same with Lyau-yong; the second with Mug-den, the present capital, called by the Chinese, Shin-yang. In the year nine hundred and forty-six, She-king-tang, who had married the daughter of the then late emperour of China, Hewtang, rebelled against his son and successor, Ming-tsong, and with an army of fifty thousand men, furnished by the Lyau, he deprived Ming-tsong of his crown and life; the son of which prince, Fiti, unable to resist the usurper, shutting himself up with his family, and all he had, in a palace in the city of Ghey-chew, set it on fire, and perished in the flames. By his death She-king-tang became emperour, and founded the sixteenth dynasty of Hew-tsin, under the name of Kaut-su; but the general of the Lyau, who contributed so much to his elevation, refused to acknowledge him, intending the dignity for himself. Kaut-su, to avoid a new war, purchased a peace by ceding to the Tartar sixteen cities in the province of Peche-li, besides an annual present of three hundred thousand pieces of silk. This cession greatly augmented the power, and enflamed the ambition of these restless people, and occasioned many wars by which China was ravaged for four centuries; but the transactions between these countries have been already noticed in the history of China, as far as the brevity of this compilation will admit; it is unnecessary therefore here to add more than that in the early part of the twelfth century the Chinese with the assistance of the Eastern Tartars put an end to the kingdom of the Lyau, after it had subsisted in Lyau-tong two hundred and nine years; yet their monarchy was in some sort restored ninety-four years afterwards by Genghiz-Khan, who in twelve hundred and eleven raised to the throne of Lyau, a Kitan prince, named Lyew-ko, and on his death Pi-tû, one of his sons, was appointed his successor. Meanwhile Ye-lû Tache, prince of the Lyau, finding his house

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destroyed by the Nu-che or Kin, departed from a city of Shen-si, and retired with a few followers to the Pe-tata, who encamped to the south-east of Mount Altay. Thence removing into the neighbourhood of the city of Nocheco on the borders of little Bukharia; there by means of eighteen hordes he was supplied with ten thousand choice men; and being permitted by the king of the Whey-hû, to pass though his territories, he vanquished all that opposed him, and arrived with an inestimable booty at a city supposed to be Kojend, on the river Sîr, in great Bukharia, the Whey-hû princes of which parts advancing to give him battle were totally defeated. From thence he marched to Kirman, where his generals proclaimed him emperour. He then turned eastward, and fixed at Or-tû a city in the east of little Bukharia: and thus was the dominion of the western Lyau or Kitan founded in eleven hundred and twenty-four, and subsisted until twelve hundred and twelve, when it was destroyed by Kuchluk, prince of the Naymâns. The empire of the Kin was in the east after a protracted struggle with Genghiz-Khan, and his immediate successor put an end to, by the Moguls in twelve hundred and thirty-four.

Si-fân or Tufan.

According to the jesuit's map of Tibet, between twelve degrees thirty minutes, and eighteen degrees twenty minutes west longitude from Pe-king, lies the country of the Si-fân or Tufan of triangular shape, with a base to the northward, about three hundred miles long, and its sides of about two hundred and forty each: though they formerly possessed all Tibet, and even some of the neighbouring territories of China. By the Chinese these people are distinguished as of two tribes, the black and the yellow Si-fân, so denominated from the colour of their tents. The black have besides their tents some mean towns, and are governed by a chief who has under him two lieutenants, and they are very uncivilized. The women wear their hair hanging down on their shoulders, in tresses and ornamented with glass mirrors. The yellow Si-fân are subject to certain families, the eldest of which is made a Lama, and wears a yellow habit. These Lamas govern in their respective districts, the greater part of them dwell in tents: but some have houses of earth. They have numerous flocks of sheep, and all the necessaries of life. The Lamas do not

oppress the people, but require of them only certain honours, and payment of the trifling dues of Fo, exacted on a religious account. These two tribes of Si-fân use two different dialects, and the characters used by the chiefs are those of Tibet. Their customs partly resemble those of the Chinese, and partly those of the Kâlka Tartars, and those of Roko-nor. They are too in some measure subject to the Chinese; but the ruggedness of their country secures them from further subjugation: while the Chinese think proper to court them for the rhubarb which grows abundantly on their lands. Formerly indeed their extensive dominion made them formidable even to the emperour of China: for on the east side they possessed not only what at present belongs to the provinces of Se-chwen and Shen-si, but extending their conquests reduced several cities of the second rank; forming of them four great governments. Westward they were masters of all the countries from the river Ya-lung, to the borders of Cashmir. In the seventh century, Kitson, king of the Tu-fân held this vast domain, and had tributary to him several kings, who received from him investiture with patents, and seals of gold. This prince having his demand of a princess of China, for a wife for his son Long-tsong, refused by the emperour Tay-tsong, that son on his father's decease made an irruption into China, and, though his forces were defeated, so formidable an enemy did he appear, that the Chinese emperour by the advice of his council sent the princess to him with great pomp. Kil-so succeeded Long-tsong, and Susi, his next heir male, him. This last monarch being called in to assist the Chinese emperour, When-tsong, against a rebel prince, he gave the former effectual assistance. In reward for this service the Tu-fân had large presents; but not contented with these they advanced into the empire as far as the city of Chang-gan, which they plundered of very great riches, and set on fire. The stratagems of the Chinese commanders however induced the conquering army to retreat with the spoils they had already obtained. No sooner was this expedition over, than they joined the Whey-he Tartars in the support of another Chinese rebel, but differing with their allies about the command, the Chinese improved this difference, and at length detached the Whey-he from the Tu-fân; when these last were attacked in their

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retreat with the loss of ten thousand men. To retrieve this, the Tu-fân king made another irruption, but was quickly compelled to retire with loss; yet after a rest of only five years he renewed his attack, when he met with a total rout from an ambuscade planned by the Chinese general, Ko-tsey. In consequence of this defeat the king of the Tu-fân sent an embassador pompously attended to treat for peace, but the contemptuous manner in which he was treated by the emperour. would have caused a renewal of the war, had not that emperour died, and his son, Te-tsong, more prudently changed the mode of treatment, and sent the embassador back with rich habits, and laden with presents under the conduct of one of his own officers; who being by the king of the Tu-fân received and dismissed with honour, the emperour conceived such a regard for the Tu-fân court as promised a long peace; but on the demise of the crown of the Tu-fân, in seven hundred and eighty-six, Tsang-po, who succeeded to it, ordered his army to invade Shen-si, where after some successes, it met with a defeat so severe, that he was compelled to sue for peace. But though the treaty was ratified by an oath, the king of the Tu-fân prepared for a second expedition, and sent a very considerable army towards the Chinese territories, and though these troops were met and defeated by the Whey-he Tartars, they with great resolution continued their march; but a Chinese general attacked unexpectedly and cut in pieces several of their corps; yet in eight hundred and one, the Tu-fân returned to the attack; but after some success they were defeated, and had taken from them Wey-chew, in Se-chwen, one of the royal cities in which the Tu-fân kings had been wont to reside for a part of the year. For which reason the succeeding monarch, Itay, with an army of an hundred and fifty thousand men laid siege to it, and after twenty-five assaults obliged the Chinese general to surrender. The Tu-fân elated with this success advanced towards the capital of Se-chwen, but by a stratagem were induced to retire to Wey-chew. I-tay, a mild prince, satisfied with recovering this last place, informed the Chinese that he was willing to live in peace, and gave orders to his officers accordingly; while the Chinese on their part acted on several occasions with great generosity. The Tu-fân king employed the opportunity thus given him in making new laws,

and filling his offices with men of merit; but this deserving prince was succeeded by one of very different character, whose name was Ya-mo, a man wholly devoted to pleasure, and who for his cruel oppression became so detested by his subjects, that they emigrated in multitudes; and he was in fact the first cause of the decay of the kingdom. At his death the publick distractions only increased; for neither leaving issue, or nominating a successor, by court intrigues the son of Payva, a favourite of Ya-mo's widow, though only three years old was proclaimed king. The prime minister alienated the affections of the people; and the commander in chief, then on the frontiers with the army, not only refused obedience to the orders sent him, but even conceived the project of ascending the throne. This officer, whose name was Lû-kong-je, being on the one hand, ambitious, vain, and passionate, and often cruel, was, on the other, brave, skilfull, and capable of the greatest undertakings. After causing it to be reported, that he was going to destroy the usurpers of the crown, he marched against and defeated the new king's army, and took and plundered Wey-chew. His forces having by the accession of mal-contents increased to an hundred thousand men, ere further attempts he endeavoured to gain the governours of the provinces. By one of these, named Shang-pi-pi, he was overreached, and totally defeated; but, having recruited his forces, to gain the affections of the Tu-fân, he made an irruption into the Chinese territories, and gave them up to be plundered; but after some success at first, his army was routed, and the Chinese took the city of Yen-chew, and several fortresses from the Tu-fân. The rebel general hoping to repair all these losses could he once secure the throne of Tu-fân, turned his arms against Shang-pi-pi; but when he had driven that commander from his camp, he became so insupportable to his own soldiers, by his natural brutality, inflamed by want of the success for which he had hoped, that they deserted in troops; and the Tartars whom he had allured to join him with the promise of the plunder of China, returned home. So that at length despairing of accomplishing his design, he submitted on certain conditions to the emperour, and retired to Ko-chew, a Chinese city, where he spent the remainder of his days. Still the usurpation was

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not contentedly submitted to. Some of the princes of the royal family retired towards China, others fortified themselves in the mountains; while the most considerable remained in their own territories. Hence arose numerous distractions, and the Tu-fân divided into parties went to war among themselves. Wearied with which many officers and soldiers enlisted under Pan-lo-chi, prince of Lû-kû, a place which the children of Shang-pi-pi had preserved for the royal family. As soon as the Tu-fân beheld a prince of the blood, they formed an army to attack the king of Hya, who had ill requited their services. This king was originally a Tartar of To-pa, who by the assistance of the Tu-fân about the middle of the tenth century founded a new kingdom near the Whang-ho, the capital of which was Hya-chew, afterwards Ning-hya; whence the kingdom took its name of Hya, or Si-Hya. It sprang up to the west of Kitay, and gradually became very potent under a prince who assumed the title of emperour. His dominion extended over part of China and Tartary, containing the province of Shen-si, all to the north of Ping-lyâng-fû, as far as Kya-yû-quan, with the country of Ortles and Etsina, that of Rokonar, and that between Kya-yû-quan and Sha-chew, besides several other places to the north and west of Kya-yû-quan. The king of Hya had in the year a thousand and three renewed the war with the Chinese empire, then under the dynasty of Song, invading the western part of Shen-si, which bordered on the small domain of which the Tu-fân were still possessed. Pan-lo-chi above-mentioned, offered to unite his forces with those of the Chinese, to crush the the growing power, on condition, that the emperour would confer on him a title which would give him more authority in his own country. On which was sent him a patent as governour-general of the Tu-fân: by the acceptance of which the independence of the nation was surrendered. The king of Hya unapprized of the negociation, was pushing his conquests in China, under the belief that Pan-lo-chi was advancing to join him; but that prince advancing at the head of sixty thousand men, attacked him so vigorously, as to put his army to a total rout; yet in the battle he received a wound of which he quickly died. So-tso-lo, his successor, formed a design of restoring the kingdom of the Tu-fân. At that time his small

domain consisted only of seven or eight towns with some adjoining territories; but he hoped, that the rest of the Tu-fân would join him, when they saw him sufficiently powerfull to defend them from their enemies. With this opinion he levied what forces he could, and repeatedly invaded the Chinese empire, but being always defeated, he at length concluded a peace. The Chinese monarch more effectually to engage So-tso-lo in his interest against the king of Hya, made him governour general of Pau-shun; but So-tso-lo dying, the division which ensued among his children, hastened the final ruin of the Tu-fân state; part of which surrendered to the Chinese, and the remainder sunk under the overwhelming power of Genghiz-Khan, in the year twelve hundred and twenty-seven. Under the same power also fell the kingdom of Hya, at nearly the same period.

History of the Asiatick Islands.

As the remaining part of Tartary together with Siberia forms part of the Russian empire, the story of which has been already told, this history may proceed from the continent to those Asiatick islands, on which any occurrence worthy to be stated took place previous to the æra at which it is to be closed. To begin with the most western of them, Ceylon. This island which the ancients seem to have known under the name of Ta-pro-bane, was to the moderns first discovered by the Portuguese, who formed settlements in it, but by the natives assisted by the Dutch, they were expelled from it in the year sixteen hundred and fifty-eight; when the Dutch were put in possession of all their settlements, and continued to hold them until the period at which this history closes. The Arabs know this island by the name of Selendib, and it is situated between five degrees fifty minutes, and nine fifty minutes north latitude, and between seventy-nine degrees forty-five minutes, and eighty-two five, east longitude. Its length is about two hundred and fifty miles, and its breadth nearly one hundred. It lies about forty miles south-east of the hither peninsula of India. There are in the island several rivers issuing from the hills, but in general too rapid and rocky to be navigated. The land is mostly covered with fragrant woods, and between the mountains are fertile vallies watered by fine springs. Not only gold and other metals, but topazes, rubies, saphires, granates, and crystal, are the productions of this island. When the Portuguese first landed

here, the island was very populous, and inhabited by two nations, differing widely in manners, government, and religion. Now the northern part is thinly inhabited by a nation called Bedas, and the southern and much more fertile portion is possessed by a numerous and powerfull people called Cinglasses. The prominent production of this island is the cinnamon tree, from which is obtained not only the spice, but out of its root camphire; yet besides this there is great variety of usefull plants both large and small. The quadrupeds are numerous; buffaloes, beeves, deer, goats, hogs, elephants, monkies, bears, tygers, jackalls, hares, and dogs; but no lions, wolves, sheep, horses or asses, except those imported. The tame elephants of Ceylon are more esteemed than any other, on account of their remarkable docility, as well as of their bulk, and the excellence of their ivory. The serpents here too are in great variety, and some of a stupendous size. The Cinglasses are a well shaped people, of a middle stature; their features are regular, their complexion dark, and they have long black hair; they are said not to want courage, have quick parts, an insinuating address, and to be of an even and placable temper, temperate in diet, neat in apparel, nice in their eating, and inclined to indolence, much addicted to breach of promise and lying; they manifest but little jealousy of their women, and are extremely superstitious, and most desperate gamesters. The Cinglasses have a language peculiar to themselves, and also a learned, or dead language, understood only by their priests, and in which the history of the island is recorded; but this contains little else than fabulous accounts of their gods, and of their ancient heroes removed to a state of bliss, whom also they make objects of their worship. After therefore a statement of a few other particulars relating to Ceylon and its inhabitants, the reader's attention may be called to the more eastern islands of Asia. Their towns are extremely irregular, their houses mean, and their furniture very scanty. In the inland country are reckoned four capital towns, of which Candy, the ancient metropolis, was the chief. The king of Candy possessed all the middle part of the island, and was by his despotick power formidable to his subjects; but the overthrow of this monarchy by the English, renders what it was of little interest. As to divine

worship the Cinglasses assemble together for it only on their solemn festivals; yet on Wednesdays and Saturdays they particularly apply themselves to their deities. They have here, as there are on the continent, idols of monstrous shapes, and forms; and a prodigious number of idol temples are dispersed over the country.

The Sunda Islands—Sumatra.

The next considerable islands to the east are those of Sunda; of which Sumatra first presents itself. This the equator divides into two nearly equal parts. It is one of the largest islands in the world, being about nine hundred miles in length, and from an hundred to an hundred and fifty miles in breadth. Its northern point stretches towards the bay of Bengal; on the north-east it is separated from the peninsula of Malacca by the straits of that name, and to the south it is bounded by the straits of Sunda, which separate it from the island of Java. The air of this island is very unwholesome, and no where are the rains more violent at the change of the monsoons. There are a number of volcanic mountains on this island, as on almost all the others of the eastern Archipelago. A chain of mountains, in some parts double and treble, runs through the whole island. The champaign country has a rich deep mould of various colours. Perhaps no country in the world is better watered; but it is by rivulets rather than rivers, too small as well as too rapid for navigation. Gold, tin, copper, iron, and lead, are found in the country, and the first in as great plenty here as in any part of Asia; in the mountains are all sorts of precious stones. The inhabitants cultivate large plantations of the sugar cane; but chiefly for the sake of the spirit which they extract from it; their gardens are well furnished with culinary vegetables, but the only grain that grows in the country is rice. Most of the fruits met with in India are to be found here in great perfection. The air of the island is rendered fragrant throughout the year by the numberless flowers in bloom, and great is the variety of medicinal shrubs and herbs. The most important and abundant article of commerce is pepper, which thrives in almost every soil between the two extremes that prevail in this island, the sandy and the yellow clay. Breadfruit, cabbage, and cotton-trees, grow in this island, and its forests contain a great variety of valuable species of wood, and abound too in elephants. Several kinds of wild

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beasts and particularly tygers, infest the country, and great is the variety of fowl both wild and domestick, as well as that of fish. The inhabitants themselves consist of two different people; those of the inland mountainous parts are the original settlers and pagans; those of the coast are Mahometans, probably from Arabia and Persia. Manangcabow is the principal sovereignty of the island, and formerly comprehended the whole, and still receives a shadow of homage from the most powerfull of the other kingdoms. The inhabitants of Sumatra in general are in person rather below the middle stature, and on the whole gracefully formed, but sadly distorted in head and face, by the parents absurd idea of beauty: their villages are always situated on the banks of a river or lake, the rows of houses commonly forming a quadrangle. In the middle of the square stands the town-hall, consisting of an undivided room from fifty to an hundred feet long, and from twenty to thirty wide, open at the sides, but on particular occasions hung with mats or chintz. The most admired of their works of art are their flying proas; they sail at double the rate of an English pinnace. There is a great diversity of languages spoken on this island; the Malay, which is the lingua-franca of the eastern islands, is spoken every where along the coast, and understood nearly all over Sumatra. The variety of other tongues have a manifest affinity among themselves, as well as to that general language, which prevails through all the islands of the eastern sea. The Malay is written in the Arabick characters; but the two principal internal languages termed Rejang and Batta, though derived from the same source, are in writing expressed by different characters. Acheen or Achem, and it is said, more properly, Aché, from the name of a tree peculiar to the place, is situate on the north-west part of Sumatra, and is the only kingdom of the island, that ever arrived at such a degree of political consequence, as to become the subject of history. Its extent properly speaking reaches inland no further than forty or fifty miles, and at present little more on the sea coast. The Achenese are stouter in their persons and more active in their dispositions than the other Sumatrans; their government is an hereditary monarchy, more or less absolute according to the talents of the reigning sovereign. The grand council at which the king presides, consists of eight and

twenty members. His revenue arises wholly from duties on exports and imports. Sumatra was first visited by Alfonso d'Albuquerque in fifteen hundred and eleven. In the eighty-fifth year of the same century the kingdom of Acheen had arisen to a great height of power, the city had a flourishing trade, and its port was crouded with vessels from all parts. The Portuguese never were able to conciliate the favour of either prince or people, who called them accursed dogs, come from the end of the world, to usurp the property of others. In the year sixteen hundred some Dutch ships arrived at Acheen, but met with a very unfriendly reception. Two years after this, arrived the first English ships, with the commander of which, captain James Lancaster, a commercial treaty was made, which proved highly beneficial to the English for many years. In sixteen hundred and twenty-one, Acheen was governed by a king, named Peducka Siri, who, by a very able admiral and a general of great abilities too, had made very important conquests; but was cruel and faithless. About seven years after this, Peducka Siri, attacked with a very formidable force the Portuguese, who were in possession of fortresses in Malacca; but his whole force was taken or destroyed by them; this defeat caused a suspension of hostilities, which continued until the year sixteen hundred and thirty-five, when Peducka Siri, perfidiously seized on the Portuguese embassador at Acheen, and put to death all of that nation at his court. Seven years after which the same prince took the city of Malacca; and in the same year he died. Leaving no male issue, his queen succeeded him, and for near sixty years the sovereignty was possessed by a female. One qualification required for this dignity may perhaps surprise the reader; it was required that the queen should be not only of the blood royal and a virgin, but somewhat advanced in years.

Island of Java.

The next island to the east worthy of notice is that of Java, which extends from an hundred and four degrees to an hundred and fourteen thirty minutes, east longitude from London, and from five degrees fifty minutes, to eight degrees south latitude, and is separated from Sumatra, on the west by the straits of Sunda. The island produces not only all the necessaries of life, but several valuable articles of commerce.

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It has many woods, mountains, and rivers, rich in their productions, and there are some gold mines; but the earthquakes here are frequent and terrible. The Dutch East India company obtained possession of all the northern coast of the island, and the remaining part is divided into several kingdoms. The emperour, who resides in the southern part of the island, has the first rank, next to him is the sultan of Mataran, and the king of Bantam. Tseribon is governed by three kings; but these are all vassals to the company. The fruits and plants of this island are excellent in their kind, and almost numberless; but rice is the only corn that grows on it. In the forests there is a great variety of wild beasts, as rhinoceroses, tygers, buffaloes, wild horses, and apes, with many species of serpents, some of a prodigious size; fowls too there are of all sorts, especially pheasants, partridges, wood-pigeons, snipes, and peacocks, and fish in great plenty, and very good. The city of Batavia, the capital of the Dutch East India company's dominions, stands on this island at the bottom of a deep bay, which being defended by several small islands, is a safe retreat from all winds. The houses being large and the streets wide, this city stands upon a much greater extent of ground, in proportion to the number of its houses, than any European city. The country round is for many miles a continued range of country houses and gardens; but in dry weather a most horrid stench arises from the canals, and the fence of every field and garden is a ditch, while among the cultivated grounds are interspersed many filthy fens, bogs, and morasses. The city of Bantam, which lies too on the north coast, is seated in a plain at the foot of a mountain. When in its prosperity, it was twelve miles in circumference and very populous, though now a wretched place. Japara is situated on the same coast; but the king of it resides at Kattasura about twenty-nine leagues up the country. Of the smaller islands to the northward of Java, Timor is the most considerable. It is near two hundred miles long, and generally fifty broad. The island is divided into many kingdoms, which speak different languages, though the inhabitants of them all seem to be originally of the same descent.

Island of Borneo.

Borneo, New Holland excepted, the largest island on the globe, is situated between seven degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and four

degrees south, and between an hundred and eight and an hundred and eighteen east longitude from London. It is about seven hundred miles in length, and five hundred in breadth. It was discovered by the Portuguese in fifteen hundred and twenty-one. This island is extremely unhealthy on account of the annual inundations to which the flat part of it is subject, and chilling winds and cold damps that succeed the hottest days; but the gold and precious stones which abound here, tempt the merchant to brave the perils of even such a climate. It is said, that there are above an hundred rivers in this island, of which the principal is named Bender Massin. The town of Borneo is situated on the north-east of the island; the houses are built on each side of the river on piles, and the ascent to them is by stairs and ladders. The Borneans are described as a sensible, steady people, with much primitive strictness, and simplicity of manners; and their government is of a mixed kind, the chief person in it is styled the Eang de Patuan, and the second the sultan; after him come the pangarans or nobles, who are in number about fifteen, and often tyrannise over the people. Besides rice, which is the only grain eaten by the inhabitants, the country produces all the Indian fruits. Here is also abundance of very fine timber, with the cotton shrub, canes, and rattans, but foreigners chiefly resort to this island for its pepper. Of the wild animals the ourang-outang, or man of the woods is the most remarkable. The northern part of Borneo is said to have been at one time under the dominion of China. The Portuguese found the coast inhabited by Malayan Moors, who had driven the primitive inhabitants of the island to the mountains; these they styled Byayes, or Biajoos, signifying in the Malayan tongue, wild men. These are very superstitious, and offer up human victims. The Moors themselves are called Banjareens, and are in general quick of apprehension, and extremely inquisitive, of a peaceable disposition; but when they are provoked, with blood alone can they be satisfied. The religion of the inland country is paganism, but that of the sea coast Mahometism. The Banjareens speak the Malayan tongue, but the inland people have a language peculiar to themselves; and history they have none.

Island of Celebes

Celebes or Macassar, lies directly to the east of Borneo, extending

from one degree thirty minutes north latitude, to five degrees thirty south. It is about five hundred miles in length, and where broadest nearly two hundred miles over, delightfully variegated by mountains, hills, and vallies, and cloathed with an exuberance of verdure. The inhabitants of this island are of a moderate stature, their cheek-bones very high, and their noses generally flat; they are robust and strong, and naturally industrious. Being much inclined to military service, and deemed the best soldiers on that side of India, they are taken into the pay of other states; nor are they unfrequently employed by Europeans, who have sometimes suffered for treating them with severity, which they never fail to revenge. The town of Macassar is seated in a district called Macassar, on the banks of a great river, and here the Dutch East India company have a fort. The government was anciently monarchical; but to prevent the descent of the crown to an infant, it was inherited by the king's eldest brother. The king of Macassar was in alliance with the Dutch, who have been repeatedly repulsed in their attempts to reduce other parts of the island. One of which is inhabited by a people, called Buggueses by some, and another called Waggs or Tosora. No documents for a more perfect history of Celebes appearing to exist, the Moluccas, which run on the eastern side of it, and pass round its south-east corner, next claim our attention; their produce has procured for these the name also of the Spice Islands. The largest of the cluster is not more than twelve leagues in circumference, and all the rest are much smaller. The soil of these islands is dry and spongy, so that it immediately soaks up the rain, and is always covered with grass and ever-verdant shrubs. In the Moluccas is no corn, and scarcely any butcher's meat but goat's flesh. The inhabitants chiefly eat sago, the pith of a large tree, which they make into cakes instead of bread. Besides their great produce cloves and nutmegs, these islands have also almonds, oranges, lemons, and other fruit. About the year fifteen hundred and twenty they were inhabited by a savage race, whose chiefs though honoured with the titles of kings, were in fact entirely dependent on the caprice of their subjects. Accident had before caused some Chinese to touch at the Moluccas, and they discovered the clove and the nutmeg. When the Portuguese first came thither,

they availed themselves of the animosity which prevailed between the kings of Ternate and Tydore, and persuading them to refer their differences to them, they found no difficulty in settling factories and building forts. These were afterwards expelled partly by the natives and partly by the Dutch; which last too by nefarious treachery, and the very reprehensible and contemptible weakness of the English court, at length got sole possession of these valuable islands. The chief, though not the largest of these, is Ternate, lying in longitude one hundred and twenty-five degrees east, and one degree fifty minutes north latitude. This island is well watered, and the peak of Ternate sometimes emits fire; the country is governed by a sultan who lives in great state, having under him five synagees or chiefs ruling over as many districts; his dominion too extends over the north of Gilolo, and a considerable part of the north-east quarter of Celebes. To him also belong the islands of Sangir, Siao, Karakita, Tagulanda, Banka, and Telle-syang; two or three leagues only from Ternate lies Tydore, very populous, and containing twenty-five mosques; it is too governed by a Mahometan sultan, who possesses great part of Gilolo to the south-east, and claims the islands of Waygiou, Mysol, and Batanta; for it is remarkable that in this Archipelago small islands are the residences of princes whose dominion extends over much larger countries. Bachian lies a little to the southward of the equinoxial; the sultan of this island is also sovereign of the islands Orby, Ceram, and Goram; gold certainly abounds on this island. Amboyna is one of the largest of the Moluccas, and is situated between three and four degrees south latitude. It was conquered by the Portuguese in fifteen hundred and nineteen, who erected a fort on it, which was taken from them by the Dutch in sixteen hundred and five, and in sixteen hundred and twenty-two, the English were deprived of their share of it by the same greedy people, in a manner equally base and shocking to humanity. It is the centre of the rich commerce in cloves.* There

* The clove tree resembles the laurel, only the leaves are narrower. The wood and leaves taste as strong as the cloves themselves. The trees bear a great quantity of branches and flowers, and each flower produces a clove, which is at first white,

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are included among the Moluccas four islands, which are larger than the Spice Islands, Gilolo, Ceram, Bouro or Burro, and Bauton. Gilolo extends from three degrees ten minutes north, to fifty minutes south latitude, and lies to the eastward of the islands of Ternate and Tydore. It is more than two hundred miles long, and generally fifty broad. It is said, that this island was once under one sovereign, who was named Serif, and came from Mecca. It abounds with bullocks and buffaloes, goats, deer, and wild hogs; there are few sheep and no beasts of prey. Ceram extends but one degree of latitude, from three to four degrees south; it is said to be very rich in cloves. The island of Bouro, which lies in four degrees south latitude, is about forty or fifty leagues in circumference, and is represented as a delightfull composition of woods, hills, plains, and well watered vallies. The island of Bouton lies four or five leagues to the south-east of the island of Celebes, and in size is nearly equal to that of Bouro. To the south of the island of Ceram lie those named Banda, of which the largest does not exceed twenty leagues in circumference, and most of them are much less. They are situate from four to five degrees south latitude, and are remarkable for the abundance of nutmeg trees they produce;* but of historical matter they afford none; and therefore the reader need be no longer detained from proceeding northward to the Philippine islands; these

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then green, and at last red, and pretty hard. The cloves grow with little stalks, and hang on the trees like cherries. They bear fruit at eight years old, and are said to continue bearing for above an hundred years.

* The nutmeg tree very much resembles a pear tree, yet its leaves are like those of a peach, only softer and rounder. It produces ripe fruit three times a year, that is in April, August, and December; but the April nutmegs are both the most plentiful and the best. The nutmeg when ripe is of nearly the same size with the wal[illegible] is covered with a thick shell, which opens and falls off as the fruit ripens, [illegible] candied, it has a very fine flavour. Under this is a skin of a fine scarlet co[illegible] a very fragrant smell. This skin, which is called mace, also falls off from the [illegible] when it changes to an orange colour. Immediately under the mace appears [illegible] with a little bud at the top, resembling a beautiful flower. These nutme[illegible] preserved in sugar are much esteemed, as being the best sweetmeats in the [illegible] but those commonly used in Europe are only well dried, after being first th[illegible] quick lime, to prevent worms breeding in them.

are in themselves numerous; but the most northern, and the most southern in the group are alone extensive. The position of the cluster is from six degrees thirty minutes, to eighteen fifteen minutes north latitude, and from an hundred and thirteen degrees thirteen minutes, to one hundred and twenty degrees fifty minutes east longitude from London. They were discovered by Magellan in the year fifteen hundred and twenty-one, and received the name of Philippines in honour of Philip the second, king of Spain. There are fourteen principal islands, the largest of which is Luconia or Manila; which is one hundred and sixty Spanish leagues in length, but of very unequal breadth. It is esteemed in general very healthy, and its water is said to be the best in the world. It produces all the fruits of the warm climates. The city of Manila is the capital of the island, and situated on a bay, which is a circular basin, nearly ten leagues in diameter, and great part of it entirely land-locked, and is in the neighbourhood of a very fruitfull country. It was not until fifteen hundred and sixty-four, that Philip the second sent out a force to subdue and colonise Luconia. The Chinese had formerly the dominion of great part of the sea coast, and it is said, that three or four thousand of their descendants, still remain on the island, being the only mechanicks and artisans in the country; yet in all these islands there are supposed to be about two hundred and fifty thousand souls subject to the king of Spain; which number still, it is supposed, does not amount to that of a twelfth part of the inhabitants of the Philippines. In the year seventeen hundred and sixty, the city of Manila, and the island of which it is capital, were taken by the English, but were restored to Spain by the subsequent peace. The island next in size to Luconia, is that of Mindanao, lying at the southern extremity of the cluster. The greater part of the inhabitants are Mahometans, and subject to the sultan of Mindanao, who governs arbitrarily without any written laws; but the whole island is not subject to him, nor is either the religion or the language the same in every part. Those who live in the woods and mountains in the midst of the country, are called Hillanoons; and these have mines of gold. The Sologues are the most inconsiderable of the nations which inhabit this island, and are settled on the north-west part of it.

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The Ladrones or Marian Islands.

The only Asiatick islands remaining to be noticed in this work are those termed the Ladrones, which were discovered also by Magellan, in fifteen hundred and twenty-one, who denominated them Ladrones, or the islands of thieves, from the propensity to stealing betrayed by the inhabitants of them. There are generally reckoned twelve of these islands. Most of them were formerly well inhabited, and even about a century past, the three principal, Guam, Rota, and Tinian, are said to have contained above fifty thousand people; but since that time, Tinian has been entirely depopulated, and only two or three hundred Indians left at Rota to cultivate rice for the island of Guam, which is the only settlement of the Spaniards; Guam is computed to be about thirty leagues in circumference, and is full of hills and dales, and streams of good water. It produces the bread fruit, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and citrons, and other fruits of the climate, and the indigo-plant grows wild in great abundance. The native Indians are tall, strong, and of an olive complexion, well limbed and deficient neither in understanding or courage. The island of Tinian is said to lie in fifteen degrees eight minutes north latitude, and one hundred forty-four and fifty minutes west longitude. It is only about twelve miles long, and about half as much in breadth; yet of extraordinary beauty and fertility. Though there be no streams of water in it, the springs are numerous; and near the centre of the island are two or three basins of excellent water, on which live flocks of ducks, teals, and curlews. Having formerly been inhabited the herds of cattle on it are numerous, and far from shy, and great are the numbers of domestick poultry in the woods, as well as those of wild hogs. Neither is this spot in the ocean to be less admired for its vegetable productions. In the woods are vast quantities of cocoa-nuts, with cabbages growing on the same tree, and there are too guavas, limes, oranges, and the bread-fruit,* by the Indian

* This fruit grows on a pretty lofty tree, which, near the top is divided and spreading branches; the leaves, which are of a remarkably deep notched round the edges, and are generally from a foot to eighteen inches The fruit itself is found indifferently in all parts of the branches, and rather elliptical than round, it is covered with a rough rind, and is usuall

rhumay. This abridgment of the history of Asia being thus brought to the proposed period, that of Africa is next to be resumed.

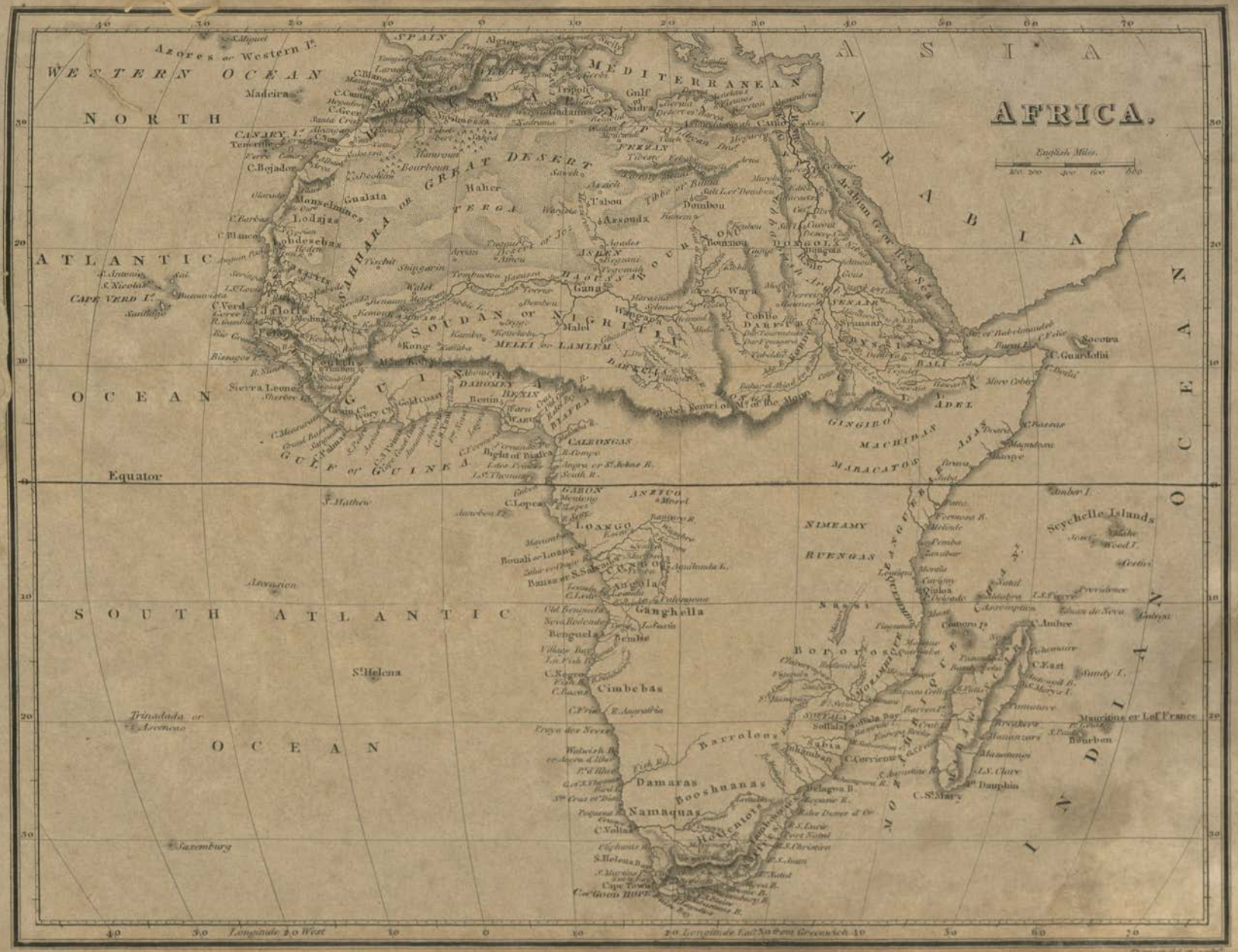
eight inches long; but it grows singly and not in clusters. The fruit is most fit for use when full grown, but still green. Having been roasted in the embers, it distantly resembles in taste an artichoke's bottom, yet perhaps is more similar to bread both in that and its texture.

CHAPTER XIV.

The History of Africa resumed.

CHAPTER XIV. SEVENTH PERIOD.

THE story of Egypt having been already given under those of the Roman, Saracen, and Ottoman empires, the history of Africa will be most properly recommenced with that of the region denominated Barbary, extending from the southernmost limits of Egypt to the Straits of Gibraltar, full thirty-five degrees of longitude, and thence to Santa Cruz, its utmost western limit, six more; in the whole forty-one. Both coasts, that on the Mediterranean, as well as that on the Atlantick, are fertile in corn and pasturage. The former extending along the declivity of a vast ridge of mountains, some of them of considerable height, spreading above forty leagues inland, all watered by a multitude of small and large rivers, which after a great number of windings through a variety of pleasant fertile vallies, discharge themselves into the Mediterranean. In this country the winter, which commences about the middle of October, frequently proves severe; yet the afternoons even in that season are commonly warm. The rains having lasted from the end of October until that of January, in the next month the weather becomes variable and milder, and at the latter end of it, the spring season begins; and by the latter end of May in Tunis, Algiers, and some parts of Morocco, they begin to gather figs and cherries; by the middle of July their apples, pears, and plums, are in full maturity, and the gathering of grapes, and other later fruits is completed by the latter



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Thomson del. et sculp.

end of September. The inhabitants of the higher lands, especially along the ridge of mountains of the great Atlas, reckon but two seasons in the year, winter and summer, the former of which lasts from October to April, when vast quantities of snow fall. Barbary is chiefly inhabited by three races; Moors, who are the original natives, the Arabs, who have overrun the country, and the Turks, who have more lately made themselves masters of some of the best provinces of it, and the several kingdoms of Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers, though under a kind of tribute to, or dependence on, the Ottoman Porte. Base and odious as is the character of the Moors, the bitter oppression of their several tyrannical governments, has greatly contributed to their degeneracy; while they are on the other hand exposed to the continual inroads of the Arabs. If through an unexpected good crop they chance to have any superfluity, and strive to conceal it, they are in danger of being bastinadoed, and even tortured by both to oblige them to discover it; so that they are content to buy their ease and safety with the most pinching indigence. The Arabs here are governed by their own despotick cheiks, except those who are settled in the towns and villages. The Turks are of the inhabitants of Barbary, not only the fewest in number, but far the worst, and except their uncontrolled power, in all respects the most contemptible; being originally a wretched crew of indigent, loose, idle, and thievish fellows, enlisted in and about Constantinople, and sent from thence, once in three years, to recruit the soldiery. The very lowest of these treat with the most insupportable insolence and tyranny their Moorish vassals; who by a long series of oppressions are become such dastards, that the wealthiest of them tremble at the sight of a Turkish common soldier. The Moors are chiefly Mahometans, while they have adopted every absurdity of superstition; and thus disgrace a country which, from one end of it to the other, is so advantageously situated for commerce, so fertile in every necessary of life, so rich in its mines of gold, silver, and other metals and minerals, and so healthy and populous, that it might defy the whole force of Europe and Asia, were its inhabitants as industrious as they are indolent and knavish, and united in one common interest.

The most eastern kingdom of this tract is that of Tripoli, which is bounded on the east by Egypt; on the west partly by Tunis, and partly by Biledulgerid; on the south by Mount Guibet, or Atlas; and on the north by the Mediterranean. In extent from east to west, it is nearly two hundred leagues; its breadth varies much, in some parts it is scarcely more than forty leagues, in others more than eighty. The metropolis of the kingdom is called New Tripoli, to distinguish it from a city of the same name in Syria. The common division given of the country is into maritime and inland; the inhabitants of the former of which chiefly live by commerce and piracy, and those of the latter, for the most part, on plunder and robbery. Each division hath some cities and towns, besides a number of villages, but most of them poor and thinly inhabited, the country being very generally sandy and barren. This state, with the rest of Barbary, after being freed from the Roman yoke, passed successively under the Vandals, Saracens, and the kings of Morocco, Fez, and Tunis, till, weary of the oppression which they suffered, the people chose a sovereign from among themselves. The new monarch at first governed equitably, but being released from the fear of external enemies, he became so tyrannical, that the citizens conspired against him, and he was murdered by his own brother-in-law. In his room, they chose one who had formerly been an officer of his, named Abubacer; but he had reigned scarcely three months; when his capital was attacked by the forces of Ferdinand, king of Castile and Arragon, taken by assault, and Abubacer, who retired into the castle, was compelled to surrender; yet he was by Charles the fifth soon restored to his dignity, on condition of becoming his vassal and tributary. Abubacer rebuilt and repeopled the city, and held it in the emperour's name, until the latter gave it to the knights of Malta. Scarcely had they got possession of it, when Barbarossa expelled them, but it was soon retaken by the emperour, and restored to them; but sultan Solyman retook it, after it had continued in possession of the Christians forty years. The famous corsair Dragut then got it into his hands, and held it as governour for the Porte; making it, by the fortifications which he added to it, one of the strongest cities in Africa, and the retreat of most of the corsairs, that roved under

Turkish colours. Nor did the duke of Medina Celi, when viceroy of Sicily, succeed in an attempt he made on it. After Dragut's death, the Porte continued sending thither, either a sangiac or a basha, the castle being garrisoned by Turks, the city inhabited by Moors, and the kingdom still paying tribute to the grand signior, and the piratick trade going on with success. In this condition continued Tripoli, until the Turkish government becoming gradually more intolerable by the avarice and tyranny of the bashas, a marabout, named Sid Hojah, about the close of the sixteenth century, raised a general revolt; but being repeatedly defeated by the Turkish admiral, he was at length assassinated by his own partisans; but a new governour sent thither from the Porte, a renegado Greek of the ancient family of the Justiniani, named Mahmet Beygh, having got possession of the castle, took the government wholly on himself, yet as a vassal and tributary of the Porte. The tribute he paid consisted chiefly in slaves, and such other presents as were most acceptable to that court; and by this he continued in his government to his death; some time after which, the Tripolitans were obliged again to receive a basha, to be a check on their deys, which last were chosen by the militia. His successors continued to pay the same acknowledgment; nor, except that sir John Narborough, by surprising the port of Tripoli, and burning all the few ships which were in it, in the year sixteen hundred and seventy-five, forced the Tripolitans to make peace with the English, and all the concessions which were desired, was there any remarkable occurrence with regard to this piratick state, until it brought on itself a bombardment of its capital by the French, by the capture of a ship under French colours, and the detention in slavery of a number of French subjects. This took place in the year sixteen hundred and eighty-five, and by it the Tripolitans were compelled to sue for peace, and pay a contribution of two hundred thousand crowns. A more intimate knowledge of the transactions of this kingdom than Europe has yet acquired, would furnish us with little else than repeated scenes of rapine, cruelty, ambition, and perfidy. Let its history therefore be concluded with stating, that in seventeen hundred and sixteen, a

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History of Tunis.

treaty of peace and commerce was concluded between Great Britain and Tripoli by Vice Admiral Baker.

Tunis is bounded on the north and east by the Mediterranean, by the kingdom of Algiers on the west, and by Tripoli with part of Beledulgerid on the south. Its length from north to south is two hundred and twenty miles, and its breadth about an hundred and seventy. The metropolis of this country, the city of Tunis, including its suburbs, extends no farther than three miles. Its situation is rendered unhealthy by the lakes and marshes around it; an inconvenience which the inhabitants strive to remedy by burning in their ovens and bagnios great quantities of mastic, myrtle, rosemary, and other aromatic herbs, thus rendering the air fragrant. But a still greater inconvenience is the scarcity of water. With these inconveniences, the place enjoys great plenty from the ships continually bringing fresh supplies of provisions, while their gardens abound with variety of fruit. They have very good wheat from the neighbourhood, but in the city market barley only is sold, with the meal of which the poor are forced to be content. The inhabitants of Tunis are a mixture of Turks, Moors, Arabians, Jews, and Christian merchants and slaves. The Tunisians are courteous to strangers; and all affairs with the regency are transacted in a very friendly manner. The consuls are treated with more justice, affability, and dispatch than in any other court on this coast: and the nation itself has for many years been more intent on trade than on cruizing and plunder. The government of Tunis is despotick, and so far hereditary, that the bey has authority to name his successor either from his sons, brothers, or nephews. The Porte has a basha residing here; but he is a mere cypher. As to the story of the country itself, it had scarcely breathed from its subjection to the Romans, Vandals, and Goths, when it was reduced with the rest of Barbary under that of the Saracens, and governed by emirs, and under the form of administration which they established it continued nearly five hundred years. After this the Tunisians became successively subject to the tribes that got the dominion of the west of Barbary, until Abu Ferez, the son of one of the viceroys, finding himself on his father's decease in pos-

session of not only his dignity, but very great wealth and power, assumed the title of king of Africa, and established a magnificent court at Tunis; from which time this city began to vie with the most superb capitals of Africa. Abu Ferez at his death divided his dominions between his three sons, giving the kingdom of Tunis to his third, named Hutmen. Hutmen, or Autman, no less valiant than his father, greatly enlarged his territories, dispossessed his brother Namar of Numidia, and after reigning forty years left his kingdom to his son Abu Bar, who was afterwards deprived of it by one Jesayah, styling himself the son of Omar the third, caliph of the Asiatic Saracens. However the successors of Hutmen recovered Tunis, until one of the kings of Fez, named Hassan, besieged and took it, but by his being defeated it was soon recovered. Abul Abez regained the provinces of which Hassan had deprived him; they were peaceably enjoyed by him and his successors until one of them, named Abu Barca, was assassinated by order of Chiajah his nephew, who had raised a rebellion in the kingdom. But this usurper was quickly defeated and slain by a first cozen of his own, who enjoyed the crown peaceably while he lived, and left it to a nephew of his predecessor, named Zechariah; on the decease of whom the chief inhabitants chose his nephew Muley Abu Camen; but his tyranny caused several cities to revolt. He was succeeded by Muley Mahmed who reigned thirty-three years, and had many children, but all so vicious and profligate, that not one of them was fit to succeed him. Yet at length he pitched upon the youngest, who afterwards became known under the name of Muley Hassan. But he kept not quiet possession of the throne, but was driven from it by Barbarossa. When he applied to the emperour Charles the fifth for assistance, who leading an expedition against Tunis made himself master of the city, replaced Muley Hassan, but as his own tributary, on the throne, keeping in his hands the fort of Goletta. The alliance which Muley Hassan had formed with the Christians rendered him so unpopular at home, that some of his cities revolted from him, and Barbarossa renewing his attacks, Muley passed over into Sicily to press for assistance from the emperour. But while he was there, his own eldest son, Hamida, revolted from him, and was by the Tunisians enthroned in his stead.

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On hearing this Hassan quickly repaired to Africa, but it was only to be defeated, taken prisoner, and be deprived of his eyes by his son. This son did not long reign in peace; while he was absent on an expedition, a fresh body of Spanish troops arriving at the Goletta, Abdulmelech, Hassan's brother, was sent by the governour to Tunis, where having seized a son of Hamida, and deprived him of his sight, he caused himself to be proclaimed king, but was carried off by disease in about six weeks. In his room the governour of the Goletta set up one of his sons named Mohammed, but he reigned only four months. In the mean time the unfortunate Hassan repaired to the emperour at Augsburg, who gave him good words, and in whose dominions he remained until he passed again into Africa with that grand armament which Charles the fifth fitted out to dislodge Barbarossa and other Turkish corsairs, when he was seized with a fever, and died in a wretched hut near the christian camp. But his treacherous son Hamida recovered the throne of Tunis, and occupied it undisturbed until the year fifteen hundred and seventy, when his capital was betrayed into the hands of the basha of Algiers; since which time both that, and the whole kingdom have remained in possession of the Turks.

History of Algiers.

The kingdom of Algiers made formerly a considerable portion of Mauritania Tingitana. It has its name from its metropolis, the only city of note in the kingdom, and called by the Turks Algezair. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the east by the river Zaine, which divides it from Tunis; on the west by the Mulvya and the mountains of Trava, which part it from Morocco; and on the south by the Sahara, or Numidian desert. Its length is said not to exceed four hundred and sixty miles, and its breadth varies from little more than forty, to above an hundred. The climate has been already noticed. While the northern parts of the mountainous district are fertile, the southern are wild and barren, harbouring a great variety of wild animals, as lions, tigers, buffaloes, wild boars, dogs, porcupines, monkeys, ostriches, wild fowl, and game. The Algerines on the coast are a strange mixture of various nations; but chiefly Moors, though there are a great number of Turks, as well as of Jews, and of Christian slaves. There are too free Christians who trade with the

inhabitants unmolested. Some of the oldest inhabitants of these parts are the Berebers, supposed to be descended from the Sabœans, and to have migrated from Arabia Felix. These are dispersed all over Barbary, divided into a multitude of tribes, and they avoid, for the most part, intermixture with other nations. These are reckoned the richest of all, go better clothed, and carry on a much larger traffick in cattle, hides, wax, honey, iron, and other commodities; they have likewise artificers in that metal, and weavers. To these may be added the Zwowahs, called by European authors Assagues, dispersed over most parts of Barbary and Numidia, and leading a wandering life; they are very poor, stout, and warlike, and are taken into the service of government. The city of Algiers itself is situated in thirty-six degrees, thirty minutes, north latitude, and thirty-four degrees, fifteen minutes east longitude, and is washed on the north and north-east sides by the Mediterranean; being built on the declivity of a hill. It is about a league in circumference, and towards the sea strongly fortified. When the Saracens had overthrown the power of the Greek emperour in this part of Africa, they tyrannized over it, until the natives found means to shake off the yoke, and form themselves into a number of petty states. These governments subsisted several centuries, until in a thousand and fifty-one Abel Texsin of the Zinhaghian tribe, with the assistance of some powerfull Marabouts overturned them all, and took on himself the title of chief of the faithfull; while his subjects were distinguished by that of Morabites, and corruptly Almoravides. This race was expelled in the twelfth century by Mohavidin, a Marabout; whose successors were exterminated by Abdulac, governour of Fez, at the head of his Benimerini, and he was in the thirteenth century stripped of his new conquests by the sharifs of Nascen. These divided Barbary into several provinces, each under its respective chief, to prevent their being lost again. Among the rest Algiers was divided between four princes, who together with their successors continued in peace for some centuries. But at length the balance of power being destroyed, their intestine discord gave advantage to the king of Arragon, who wished to put an end to the piracy of the Moors on his coasts, and in fifteen hundred and five sent an expedition to the African coast, which met

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A. D. 1516.

with such success as to alarm the Algerines for their capital, and at length compel them to do homage and become tributary to Spain. But no sooner were they apprized of the death of Ferdinand, than they sent a deputation to Aruch Barbarossa, the famous pirate, to come and free them from the Spanish yoke. Who came accordingly, and as might be expected made himself master of their city, murdered their prince, and seated himself on the throne of Algiers. But after manifesting a very considerable share of courage and abilities, he was slain by the forces of Spain. When the Turks with whom he had garrisoned Algiers, proclaimed his brother Aradin, or Hayradin, king of that city. Such, however, were the discontents raised among the citizens by the oppressive conduct of the Turks, that Hayradin deemed it prudent to place himself under the protection of the Ottoman emperour Selim the first, who appointed him basha of Algiers, sending him a reinforcement of two thousand janissaries. Hayradin thus firmly settled on the throne, ceased not his efforts until he had taken the Spanish fort built to curb Algiers, and secured the port with a new mole; after which being raised to the office of captain basha, a Sardinian renegado named Hassan Aga, was sent as basha to Algiers. The ravages of this pirate on the Spanish coasts incited Charles the fifth to accelerate his expedition for avenging the loss of the Spanish fort, and the miscarriage of which has been already stated. Hassan, after being delivered from this enemy, having forced the king of Tremecen to become tributary to him, died of a fever. The Algerine militia chose for his successor an officer of their own, named Chaji; but he was quickly superseded by Hassan, the son of Hayradin sent from the Porte. During his government he obtained possession of Tremecen, and was employed on some usefull publick works at Algiers, when the intrigues going on against him there, obliged him to repair to the Porte; from whence Salha Rais, an Arab by descent, was sent as basha of Algiers. He reduced two Numidian principalities which had revolted, and returned from his expedition against them with fifteen camel-loads of gold dust, besides other valuable spoil. Equal was his subsequent success against the kingdom of Fez, of the capital of which he obtained possession: after which he took from the Spaniards, who had holden it for five and

forty years, the city of Bujeyah. But in the next year this successfull commander fell by the plague. The Algerine soldiery supplied his place with his favourite renegado, Hassan Corso, and so much were they devoted to him, that they refused to receive Tekelli sent as basha from the Porte. Yet this last by stratagem procured an entrance into the city, when he put Hassan to a cruel death. But this was quickly revenged by a renegado belonging to the deceased, of the name of Yusef Calubres, by whom Tekelli was slain. The renegado was unanimously chosen basha of Algiers, but in six days was carried off by a pestilential disease. Six months more brought from Constantinople Hassan, the son of Hayradin, who had obtained his restoration to the government. But after good success against both the Spaniards, and some revolted mountaineers, his own janissaries, offended at his conduct, seized him in an insurrection, and sent him in chains to the Porte. And though he there easily cleared himself of the charges made against him, a new basha, named Achmet, was sent to Algiers. But he living but four months, Hassan was a third time appointed basha, to the great joy of the Algerines. Having failed in an expedition against the Spaniards, and lost the supposed impregnable fortress of Pennon de Velez, and been engaged in an unsuccessfull attack on Malta, he was after a continuance of five years in it this last time, superseded in his government by Mohammed, the son of Salha Rais, when he returned to Constantinople, and there died in three years more. His successor gained the love of the Algerines by some acts of publick utility. But this under a suspicious government is not the way to secure a continuance in office, and in fourteen months time he was superseded by a famed corsair Ochali. He signalized himself by reducing Tunis under the dominion of the Ottomans, and in the battle of Lepanto came off with honour. He was afterwards appointed captain basha, and Arab Achmet was appointed to the government of Algiers, but held it little more than two years, being removed to make way for Ramadan Sardo, a renegado of Sardinia, who governed Algiers without a single complaint against him for upwards of three years, when he was superseded by a Venetian renegado, named Hassan Venedic. This man's avarice and tyranny reduced the Algerine state to a miserable condition; and the

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representations made against him at the Porte procured the substitution of Jaffer, an Hungarian renegado. But this basha, who proved a worthy character, was by court intrigue removed from his post in two months, and the detested Hassan restored to it; yet after one year's government here, he was removed to Tripoli, and a new basha, Memmi Arnaud, appointed for Algiers, who proved a man of great capacity and strict justice. The history of Algiers until the beginning of the seventeenth century, presents the same routine of bashas appointed and superseded, with daring acts of corsairs at sea, and unfeeling oppression of the Turks on shore; but at that period the militia sent a deputation to the Porte, to complain of the evils arising from the misconduct of the bashas, and obtained leave to chuse their own deys, still however receiving with all due respect and maintaining the basha appointed by the sultan, though he was excluded from all share in the government, except voting in the divan when his advice was requested, or the interest of the Porte was in danger of suffering by his silence. On the return of the deputies a dey was accordingly elected by the great divan from their own body. A new set of laws was framed, and several regulations were made for the support of this new form of government. A renewed attack of the Spaniards on the capital suggested to the Algerines an augmentation of their naval force (an example followed by their neighbours of Tunis and Tripoli); and this led to further depredations on the Christian commerce, unrestrained by the existence of treaties; nor did the efforts to chastise their insolence made by Europeans, produce any other effect than rendering their defiance still more open. About the year sixteen hundred and twenty-eight, the Algerines and their neighbours taking advantage of the difficulties in which the Ottoman emperour was then implicated, came to a resolution to consider themselves as not concerned in any treaties which that potentate might have made with any christian power, and when the grand signior reprimanded them for their depredations, they replied to his menaces with insolence, and treated his bashas with the same. From the Venetians, however, they received a severe check, yet in the course of two years became more formidable than ever, and remorseless in their piracies; while their domestick history was

filled up with contests for authority between the Turkish bashas and the Algerine deys, until the beginning of the eighteenth century, when the latter found means to persuade the Porte to unite those two dignities, and consent, that whosoever should be chosen dey by the Algerine divan, should be invested with the title and dignity of basha. For what in the mean time passed between the Algerines and other nations; their outrages on the French coasts brought two bombardments on their capital, during the last of which the soldiery were excited to rise and murder the dey, into whose place they put their admiral, Mezzomorto, who had incited them to mutiny, and under his direction provoked a continuance of the French hostilities by massacring all of that nation which were in the city, and firing the consul from a mortar. Exasperated at which, the French admiral left not the place until he had destroyed all their shipping, fortifications, buildings, almost all the lower, and above two-thirds of the upper part of the city. This chastisement made them sue for peace, which the French monarch granted on his own conditions. The humble state to which they were thus reduced disposed them to a treaty also with the English, which was repeatedly renewed, though infringed on almost every favourable opportunity, until by the possession of Gibraltar, the consideration of the English was increased in the Mediterranean. It was in the year seventeen hundred and ten, that the dey, Baba Hali, prevailed to have the dignity of basha conferred on himself. By his justice exemplary punishment was inflicted on a young Moor for insulting the English consul. In the same year was renewed the treaty with England; and in seventeen hundred and eighteen, this eminent dey died, and was succeeded by the high treasurer Mohamed. But a general peace with the three trading nations, of Great Britain, France, and Holland, has produced a decline in the naval force of Algiers, and in the year seventeen hundred and thirty-two, they had only six ships of from thirty-six to fifty guns, and very few experienced commanders.

A. D. 1683.

A. D. 1686.

History of the empire of Morocco and Fez.

The two kingdoms of Morocco and Fez, now composing one empire, were part of the ancient Mauritania, and are bounded on the west by the ocean; on the east by the river Mulvya, dividing them from Algiers; on the north by the Mediterranean; and on the

south, by the river Sus, which separates Morocco from the province of Darhas, and by part of the kingdom of Tafilet. The greatest length of the whole empire is about five hundred and ninety miles, and its greatest breadth two hundred and sixty; but where narrowest, it is not above half of that. The climate and inhabitants have been already spoken of, in the general description of Barbary; but the great Atlas is too important a feature in this country to be passed by unnoticed. This chain of mountains is called the great Atlas to distinguish it from another, extending along the coast of Barbary, from the Straits of Gibraltar, to the district of Bona, in the kingdom of Algiers, and termed the little Atlas, and it stretches from the city of Messa, on the Atlantick Ocean, in nine degrees thirty minutes, west longitude, and thirty degrees fifteen minutes, of north latitude; quite across Barbary to Mount Meys, in the Desert of Barca, about eighty leagues west of Alexandria; but often changing its name according to the territories through which it runs, and the vast chasms of plains and vallies by which it is intersected. This chain, though in so warm a climate, is in many parts uninhabitable, through the coldness caused by its height, or by its inaccessibility. The generality of the rest enjoying a much milder climate, are not only inhabited, but in many places well cultivated, and have a number of well inhabited towns and villages dispersed in them, with abundance of cattle: though the inhabitants of many of these, are in the winter season obliged to retire into caverns together with their cattle; but as the snow melts, these mountains are again covered with men and cattle. The city of Morocco itself, though much sunk from its former grandeur, may be esteemed one of the richest and most considerable of all Africa. It is situated between two rivers, and on a third, in a spacious plain, and about one hundred and seventy miles from the Atlantick Ocean. The inhabitants are now reduced to about twenty-five thousand. Though in rank considered as the second city of the empire, that of Fez far eclipses Morocco in wealth and population; it stands on the river of the same name, which there divides itself into six branches, and turns four hundred mills, and over these streams are no less than two hundred and fifty stone bridges, some of them very beautifull and grand. This stands in

thirty-eight degrees of north latitude, and four of west longitude. The last city of this empire, which can be particularly noticed, is Mequinez, on the river Sebu, about twelve leagues westward of Fez, a place about three miles in compass. In all these cities the Jews are tolerated, on account of their usefulness in commerce, and they are both numerous and rich. This country having continued about four centuries under the Roman empire, fell under the Goths, who crossed into it from Spain. Their government lasted until that of the Saracens, who obliged this whole region to submit to their religion, as well as their government. From this epocha Africa was divided into a variety of kingdoms, the incidents occasioned by whose mutual hostilities, raised at length to the sovereignty the family of the Almoravides. Yusef, the second monarch of that line, built the city of Morocco, conquered the kingdom of Fez, and the Moorish dominions in Spain: all which, together with the sovereignty, were lost by his grandson, Albo Hali; who being defeated and slain in Spain, the crown passed to the Almohedes by the defeat and tragical end of his son, Abraham. It had continued in this line above three generations before Mohammed, the son of Al Mansur, lost the famous battle of Sierra Morena. The feuds which arose between the sons he left, afforded occasion to the viceroys of Fez, Tunis, and Tremecen, to shake off their dependence, and in the time of Mohammed's grandsons, Abdallah, of the family of the Merini, having made himself master of Morocco and Fez, entailed those two crowns on his family. The Merini were in their turn expelled by the Oatazes, who were likewise driven out by Hascen or Hassan, pretending to be of the race of the sharifs, a title affected by the descendants of Mahomet. He was a native of the city of Tigumedit, in the province of Dhara, and had acquired such a reputation for wisdom, learning, and sanctity, as to be deemed the oracle of his time: he had three sons arrived at manhood, who practised the same mode of deception as their father, and the two youngest entering into the service of the king of Fez, rapidly rose from one degree of power to another, until the youngest, named Mohammed, having possessed himself of Tednett, capital of the province of Hea, assumed the title of prince of Hea. When his sons had arrived at this height

of power, Hascen, their father died, quickly after which, the eldest of the three, was slain in a battle with the Portuguese; yet his brothers gained the victory. Some years after, they insinuated themselves into the confidence of the prince to whom the city of Morocco belonged, and having poisoned him, Hamed, the elder brother, got himself proclaimed king in his room. After some further success they threw off all submission to the king of Fez, to whom they had before acknowledged themselves tributary, and Mohammed, the younger, having pushed his conquests to a considerable extent, took on him the royal title. This caused a rupture between the brothers, during the hostilities arising from which, Hamed was taken prisoner by his brother, and the city of Morocco surrendered to the last; who, having sent Hamed and his family into the kingdom of Taphilet, turned his arms against the king of Fez, and at length obtained possession both of his person and his capital; the former of which he sent to Morocco, and having in the latter occupied the royal palace, he married the king's daughter. Having established himself in his new conquest, he obliged his brother to remove from Taphilet, into a region on the desert of Zahara. Not long after which, his own misfortunes began by the death of his eldest son, Haroran, which was followed by the loss of the next, named Abdelcader, through the treachery of his brother, Habdarraman, which last, in punishment of his perfidy, it is supposed Mohammed caused to be poisoned. Rendered by these misfortunes still more jealous and cruel, he caused the unhappy king of Fez and his son to be strangled; but an old minister of that king, and himself of the blood royal, named Buhanzon, was at length enabled to recover from him the city of Fez, where he was by favour of the people set on the throne. In the mean time, Mohammed's brother, having quitted the desert, and made himself master of Taphilet, was soon besieged in it, and having surrendered on a promise of mercy, was ordered into confinement for the rest of his life; while his sanguinary conquerour caused his two sons to be butchered. After which advancing towards Fez, he met and defeated Buhanzon, who fell in the engagement, and Mohammed entered again that city in triumph. Having returned to Morocco, and thither invited his

brother, Hamed and his family, after having indulged himself for some time in the pleasures of his seraglio, he entered on another expedition, during the course of which he was assassinated by a Turk, employed for that purpose by Hassan, king of Algiers; but the assassin and his accomplices were cut to pieces or taken prisoners. When the news of this assassination reached the city of Morocco, the then governour of it caused Hamed and seven of his sons and grandsons to be put to death, to prevent any revolt in his favour, without the knowledge of Abdallah, the son of Mohammed; who succeeding his father, proved jealous, cruel, and exceedingly debauched; but though detested for his horrid cruelties, he kept quiet possession of his extensive dominions to the end of his life; A. D. 1571. when he was in possession of the two Mauritanias, and great part of Numidia. His successors retaining the same territories, have observed the same despotick maxims of government, which his father introduced, while they have, perhaps, surpassed him in extortion, perfidy, and cruelty. Abdallah's immediate successor was Muley Mohammed. On his accession he put to death two of his brothers, and closely confined a third; but being himself dethroned by his uncle, Muley Moluch al Melech, he was slain in endeavouring to A. D. 1578. recover his kingdom. During the decisive battle, Muley Moluch himself expired, and was succeeded by his brother, Muley Hamed; who overcame the attempts of Muley Moluch's son to recover the throne, and reigned happily, and respected by his subjects; being a great encourager of learning, and having conquered the two kingdoms of Gago and Tombut. Four sons of Muley Hamed contended for the throne, but the youngest, named Zidan, at length overcame the rest, and having also by the assistance sent him, in ships and ammunition, by Charles the first of England, put an end to the depredations which the pirates of Sallee committed in his territories, he reigned, except some disturbances from the Arabs, A. D. 1630. peaceably until his death. He was succeeded by his son, Muley Abdelmelech, whose debaucheries and cruelties rendering him odious to his subjects, he was, when he had reigned scarcely four years, assassinated by a Christian slave. He was the first who assumed the title of emperour of Morocco, Fez, Suz, Taphilet, &c. He was

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very fond of Christian renegadoes, but those who would not turn Mahometans, he amused himself with having devoured by lions he kept for that purpose, and sometimes would condescend to hack them in pieces with his own scymetar. This wretch was succeeded by his brother, Muley Elwaly, of so opposite a disposition, as quickly to gain the love of his subjects. He reigned twelve years, and on his decease his brother, Muley Hamed Cheyk, the only surviving son of Zidan, mounted the throne; his vicious indolence gave the Arabs about Morocco opportunity to take that city, when he was slain, and they chose Crumel Hack, one of their own princes, to be emperour. He reigned some years, and was succeeded by Muley, king of Taphilet, two of whose grandsons had afterwards some contests for the empire, but his younger son, Muley Ishmael, overcame them both, and raised himself to an higher pitch of power, wealth, and

A. D. 1672. grandeur, than any of his predecessors had ever attained; nor was his tyranny and cruelty at all inferior to his power or wealth. Pleased with the situation of Mequinez, then only a castle, about twelve leagues from Fez, in one of the richest spots in Barbary, he made it the metropolis of his kingdom. Here his oppression of his subjects was as wanton, as his defiance of their resistance was dauntless. He made it even matter of amusement to shoot or behead them, to shew his dexterity. The reader cannot without astonishment hear, that so detestable a tyrant could reign fifty-five years, without disturbance from any but his own sons, and over two of these he triumphed; the one dying in consequence of formal punishment, the other being murdered by his father's direction; but unable to get the third into his hands, he punished him by depriving him of the succession, to which his primogeniture had taught him to look, and giving it to another son, named Muley Deby, of a most

A. D. 1727. vicious character. No sooner was this man, on his father's decease, in quiet possession of the throne, than by plunging into all manner of debaucheries, he excited such discontent, that the city of Fez openly revolted, and a rebellion broke out at Tetuan; while a brother of the king, named Abdelmelech, had taken up arms against him, who though he did not at first succeed, was at length,

A. D. 1728. through the gross excesses of Muley Deby, proclaimed emperour,

and sent his deposed predecessor into close confinement at Taphilet; but there he contrived to raise a small army, and Abdelmelech, by his harsh usage of them, having disgusted his negroes, they revolted to his brother, and replaced him on the throne; from which a dropsy soon hurled him, yet not before he had ordered Abdelmelech, who had fallen into his hands, to be strangled. Although Muley Deby left a son, a brother named Abdallah, obtained the throne, and when A. D. 1729. he thought himself firmly established in it, disclosed a most despotick and cruel disposition, and was at length driven from it by his negroes, whom their discontented general had induced to revolt, and place on the throne another son of Muley Ishmael, named Muley Hali; but Abdallah having carried off his treasure, he with this repurchased the service of a number of the blacks, and was by them restored to the throne. This he had no sooner recovered than he renewed his cruelties, which produced a fresh revolt in favour of Muley Sidi, another prince of the royal blood; but this competitor, Abdallah was fortunate enough to defeat, by which victory he remained master of the empire, and continued to hold it at the period when this history closes.

Having finished the history of Barbary, scanty are the materials for narration, furnished by the more southern parts of Africa. The whole interior of this continent has been divided into Upper and Lower Ethiopia, the latter containing all the country from the ninth to the twenty-fifth degree of north latitude, and from the twenty-fifth of east, to the fifteenth degree of west longitude from London. The modern history of Biledulgerid, or the ancient Numidia, being contained in what has been already related of the states of Barbary, the region which next offers itself to consideration is the vast tract denominated Zahara, or the Desert, extending from the Atlantick Ocean on the west, to Barca and Nubia on the east; and from Biledulgerid on the north, to the river Senegal, and Nigritia on the south; a space of five hundred miles in breadth from north to south, and fifteen hundred in length from east to west. The provinces it contains, are supposed to have been formerly inhabited by the Gœtuli and Garamantes; at present, besides Moors and Arabs, it contains Berebers or Barbaries, or who surpass the others in civiliza-

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tion. They live in fixed habitations, carrying on commerce, are civil, and hospitable, and generally speaking, honest and faithfull to strangers. In different provinces they speak different dialects of the Arabick or African language, between all of which travellers report the analogy is so great, that they may easily be reduced to the primitive source. The chief commodities of these countries are camels, horned cattle, horses, dates, the fat and feathers of ostriches, and the gum Senegal; and on the coast of Angra, in the latitude of twenty-six north, the Nidil Arabs deal largely in gold dust. The best of the soil is found on the northern banks of the river Senegal, where several of the provinces produce corn, rice, millet, and a variety of fruits; but while this region is chiefly a desert, incredible is the multitude of lions, tigers, wolves, and other savage animals; to the ravages of which are to be added those of the wars perpetually made on the negroes, by the Moors and Arabs, for the sake of slaves, to revenge which, the negroes butcher all the Zaharians, that fall into their hands. The first province of this extensive country, lying on the coast, after we have left the dominions of Morocco, is that of Zanaga, or Zanzaga, bounded on the north, by the province of Suz; on the south, by the river Senegal; on the west, by the Atlantick Ocean; and on the east, by the territories of Zuanziga and others. This province contains two deserts; one of which produces a vast quantity of rock salt, which makes an article of trade in all the neighbouring countries. Notwithstanding the barrenness of this region, a variety of tribes find an habitation in it, and are so numerous as to be able to raise ten, fifteen, and even twenty thousand men, besides numerous and powerfull Arabs, who partly by force, and partly by artifice, live chiefly on the others, carrying off their cattle, which they exchange in other countries for necessaries.

A. D. 1433. This coast was first discovered by the Portuguese, who having doubled Capes Nun and Bajadore, on running farther south came to a part of the coast, where in exchange for some Moorish prisoners, they obtained a quantity of gold, whence they denominated that part of the sea the Rio del Or. The province of Zuenziga, which lies to the east of Zanaga, is bounded on the north, by Sunda, and the desert of Cogden; on the south, by the river Senegal; and on the

east, by Twarges and Zanzara. It is, if possible, more dry and barren than Zanaga. Of large caravans which pass through it, it is said, that seldom half the number of men or beasts ever return, most of them dying of thirst, hunger, fatigue, or under the whirlwinds of sand with which they are overwhelmed. The inhabitants of this district are, as those of the former, partly native Africans, and partly Arabs, and both have little other food than milk and dates, which last they import in great quantities from Biledulgerid. The territory of Sunda, and desert of Cogden, with Azured and Seram, all to the north of Zuenziga, differ nothing from it in respect either to inhabitants or country. Yet there is in the desert of Azured, a large lake of brackish water, formed by the rains. Next comes the desert of Targa or Haya, which province we are assured is less barren than any of the preceding, having a variety of deep wells of good water, and the soil producing several kinds of culinary vegetables, and some grass. It is said, that the climate is wholesome, and that large quantities of manna are there gathered, which the negroes collect in calabashes, and export to the neighbouring kingdoms. South of Targa, is the desert of Agados, and a little further south lies the kingdom of Zanfara, in which the country begins to assume a face of fertility, producing corn, rice, Turkey wheat, coffee in abundance, and even gold, according to some writers. The inhabitants are of a jet black complexion, and hideous aspect, but tall and well shaped. It has a metropolis of its own name in the twelfth degree of east longitude, and in seventeen and a half north latitude. It has been subdued by the king of Tombuctoo. Farther south and a great way to the eastward lie the kingdoms of Guber and Cano; the former of which is said in its northern part to run almost three hundred miles east of Gogo, and is parted from it by a vast desert totally destitute of water, and forty leagues distant from the Niger. It is surrounded by lofty mountains, and its numerous villages are inhabited by herdsmen. It abounds with rice, millet, barley, pulse, and is well stocked with cattle, has artificers and particularly cotton and linen weavers. The people in part of their dress resemble the old Romans, especially in their tunics and sandals. Cano is of great extent running eastward for five hundred miles; in the very centre it

has a city of the same name, in north latitude fifteen degrees thirty minutes, and twelve degrees ten minutes east longitude from London. The houses, though of clay, are neat and commodious. The inhabitants are principally merchants, rich, industrious, and hospitable. But the people of the kingdom in general, are husbandmen and herdsmen, dwelling in villages thickly spread over the face of the country: yet it has its deserts and barren spots; but in the woods is great store of citrons, oranges, and lemons. The king of Cano was once powerfull and formidable to his neighbours, but has been rendered tributary to the king of Tombuctoo. On the north of the Senegal, and east of Targa, is the province or desert of Yguida, more barren and miserable than any of the preceding, inhabited by a race of Africans, who rob, plunder, and destroy all they can. Through this inhospitable region, the caravans from Algiers and Tunis are obliged to pass in equal danger, from thirst, hunger, and the sword. The kingdom of Agades is represented as bounded on the east by that of Bornou; on the north and north-east by the desert of Lempta, and province of Yguida; on the south by Cano; and on the west by the provinces of Zapara and Guber, and a large nameless lake, north of the Niger, and connected with it by a river. The northern district of this kingdom is for its barrenness called the desert; but the southern is prolifick in grass, corn, and cattle. Three considerable towns are said to lie in the fertile division, Agad the capital, and Deyhir, and Secmana, not much inferior to it. The principal trade of the natives consists in senna and manna. Yet the inhabitants of the south feed vast droves of cattle of all denominations, wandering, like the Arabs, from place to place, living under temporary huts. The metropolis stands between two lofty mountains at the head of a nameless river, which waters the whole southern district, and at length empties itself into the lake of Garda, which communicates with the Senegal. The inhabitants are stated to consist chiefly of merchants, and foreigners settled there, who enclosed the town with walls, and built houses in the Moresko mode; yet there are besides a great number of artificers and soldiers; for though the monarch be tributary to the king of Tombuctoo, he preserves the state of a powerfull and independent prince. Berdoa, exactly north-east of Agades, is the next

province, having Faison and Barca on the north, Cano and Agades on the south-west, Nubia on the east, and Bornou on the south. It extends from the sixteenth to the twenty-second degree of east longitude, and from the twentieth to the twenty-third degree of north latitude, without comprehending a fearfull desert which extends to the twenty-fourth degree. This country is in general dry, barren, and productive of no one commodity deserving a particular description. On the south of Berdoa, having the river Niger on the south of itself, with Agades on the west, and Gaoga on the east, lies the kingdom of Bornou, extending from twelve to twenty-two degrees of east longitude, and from seventeen to twenty-one of north latitude. Though the northern part be poor, the rest, which is the greater, is well watered by springs and rivers which roll down from the mountains, rendering the country fertile in corn, grass, and fruits. The capital of the same name with the kingdom is said to lie on the northern bank of the Niger, and to be the only place in it which merits the name of a city. Both the eastern and western frontiers of this country are inhabited by a wandering people who live in tents, having every thing, even their women, in common, without religion, laws, government, or any degree of subordination, and who are said to be in understanding and manners little superior to brutes. In the towns the people are more polished, and to the south they are tractable, polite, and hospitable, and a great part of them artificers and merchants. The king is said to be very rich in gold. The last and most eastern province of the vast desert of Zahara, Gaoga, is bounded on the west by the kingdoms of Bornou and Berdoa, on the north by part of the latter, and on the south by the kingdom of Gorham. It is computed to be one hundred and eighty leagues long from north to south, and about one hundred and sixty from east to west, where broadest. The only city in the kingdom is Gaoga, standing on the north side of a lake of the same name, in north latitude fifteen degrees, forty minutes, and longitude twenty-five degrees, thirty minutes, east. The kingdom of Gaoga is mostly mountainous, the natives illiterate, without clothes, without arts, having only their shape in proof of their humanity. It is said, that they were once a free people, but were enslaved by a negro, who

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having murdered his master, a rich merchant, returned [illegible] country, and there with the money he had obtained, [illegible] body of horse, with which making inroads into Gaoga, [illegible] reduced the whole country, in which there were [illegible] courage, or numbers to resist him. To this usurper [illegible] son, who, after a reign of forty years, left the crown [illegible] Moses, whose grandson was on the throne in the reign [illegible] and Isabella of Spain, that is, in the latter part of the fifte[enth] Although the kingdom of Tombuctoo has been rep[eatedly] tioned, it has not yet been described. It is however s[ituated] great extent, bounded by Ghenoa and Gualata [illegible] Zuenziga and Guber on the north, Bita and Dauma on [illegible] present capital of the same name has been stated (for [there is] nothing on this point known to Europeans) to be situated in latitude fourteen degrees, thirty-two minutes, north, and in twenty-two degrees, twenty-five minutes, east longitude, from London. In this town and the surrounding country, the houses are built in a conical form, and composed of hurdles plaistered with hard loam, and covered with rushes. Here are said to be numerous cotton weavers. The wells, springs, and canals, drawn from the Niger, render this country fertile; its greatest want is that of salt. Next to Tombuctoo eastward lies the kingdom of Bita, so very little known, as not to justify the mention of any particulars of it. Of the province of Temian and the kingdom Medra, which last lies to the south of Bornou, the same may be said, as well as of the kingdom of Gorham, which has Bornou on the west, and Abyssinia on the east. From hence returning westward along the northern border of Medra, we arrive at the kingdom of Biafara, one of the most populous and potent states in Nigritia. Directly south of Biafara lies the country of Benin extending to the coast, by pursuing which, to the northward the tour of lower Ethiopia will be completed. Benin itself, which is also denominated the slave coast of Guinea, is bounded by Biafara on the north, on the east by parts of Africa little known, by the Gulf of Guinea on the south and by the gold coast westward. The chief towns which give name to a variety of different kingdoms in this region, are Benin on the river Formosa in seven degrees and a half north latitude; Awerri standing

the river Forcades, and subject to the Portuguese; st side of the river Formosa; Great and Little Ardrah, river Lagos; Whidah between the Lagos and the and Little Popo, west of Whidah; Lampo, a little outh of the Volta. In Benin Proper, no Europeans the Portuguese, who are the despotick sovereigns of The kingdom however is of great extent, reaching it is dred and thirty miles east and west, and about six orty north and south. Its capital is a city of great me name, all the streets of which are straight, long, and with a variety of shops, filled with European s well as the commodities of the country. The despotick, and the empire is divided into a number of all subject to the king at Benin. The natives are in good-natured civil people, from whom good usage will obtain any thing, but who are inflexible to harsh usage. Quick and alert in business, and strongly attached to their ancient manners, and not very nice in their food; since in their markets, dogs, monkies, bats, rats, and lizards dried in the sun, are all offered for sale; yet those who can afford it feed well, their common diet being beef, mutton, or fowls, with yams for bread. The king and great lords according to their ability support a certain number of poor. The blind, lame, and infirm, are the objects of their charity; but the lazy are suffered to starve if they will not work, and thus not a beggar or vagrant is to be seen. As to religion, they ascribe to the Deity the attributes of omniscience, omnipotence, invisibility, and omnipresence. They believe that he actuates every thing, and governs the world by his Providence. To every evil they give the name of devil, conceiving that a wicked, and malicious spirit presides over all that is bad. This spirit they from fear worship. Their houses are crammed with idols. The king is able to raise an hundred thousand men in a few days. His troops are armed with swords, poniards, javelins, bows, and poisoned arrows, and for defence a buckler, but of reeds only. The Slave coast, which goes by the general appellation of Great Benin, in its whole length is about three hundred and fifty leagues, and it comprehends the kingdoms of Roto, Poto, Whidah, and

Ardrah. The country of the first is flat, sandy, and barren; [illegible] wood except the wild cocoa. It is tolerably provided wit[h] But the whole commerce of the kingdom consists in slav[es] politicks, religion, and œconomy, the inhabitants greatly r[esemble] those of the Gold coast, who will presently be spoken of. T[he] dom has been engaged in frequent wars with that of Popo, [which] said, that in the year seventeen hundred they were expell[ed] country by the army of that kingdom. Popo itself extends [about] leagues from Cape Monte to the borders of Whidah. T[he] very sandy, and so barren, that the more opulent part of the [inhabi]tants fetch their provisions from Whidah. They are plagu[ed] wise with unnumbered rats, which burrow in the sand. Th[e] of Popo depend entirely on plunder and the slave trade. T[hey] uncommonly fraudulent and thievish. In the inland country [of] Popo is found plenty of fruits, roots, birds, and beasts; but [the coast] is marshy, and at the same time scarcely accessible [from] violence of the surf. The kingdoms of Poto, Roto, and Whidah, were formerly provinces of the great kingdom of Ardrah, often in rebellion against their sovereign, and more frequently at war with each other. The kingdom of Whidah is of very small extent, bounded on the north-west by Popo, and on the south-east by Ardrah, and watered by two streams. The country is spoken of as one of the most beautifull on the earth. The trees tall and straight, present to the eye fine groves, clear of underwood and weeds. The verdure of the meadows and richness of the fields clothed with corn, pulse, and fruits, and the multitude of houses with a stream murmuring down the declivity, form together an enchanting prospect. Spring and autumn perpetually succeed each other, yet the soil is not exhausted. The whole kingdom may, from its populousness, be considered as one city, divided by gardens, lawns, and groves; not a village being a musket shot distant from another. Notwithstanding the small extent of this kingdom, it is divided into twenty districts called provinces, more properly perhaps they might be denominated farms, distributed among the chief lords, and hereditary in their families. The king resides in the capital named Sabi, in which, and the other towns, a very brisk trade is carried on; but to sell a man born free for a slave

vith death. The natives of Whidah treat the great courtesy and respect; to each other also their ng; nor is any part of the world more externally idah. They are in general tall, well made, and all other negroes in industry; yet in some particulars bly rude and ignorant. They have no distinction or stated periods. The best informed among them is own age, and computes that of another by the or the arrival of an European factor. Whence it that history among them goes no higher than the . But one of the surest characteristicks of a propensity to steal, in which they are as determined ore sensible of the natives are said to believe in one s the world with perfect justice and goodness; and they have confused notions of hell, the devil, and departed spirits: yet they pay worship to a particular species of serpent, the priests of which are guilty of the most enormous and flagitious frauds. Though the natives of Whidah are so little qualified to transmit historical facts, Europeans who have been on the coast state, that in the year seventeen hundred and twenty-seven, the king of Dahomay, who had extended his conquests as far as Ardrah, and received from the king of Whidah an haughty answer to a request which he made him, invaded his territories, and without resistance entered his capital, while the fugitive took refuge in a maritime island; and though he was roused to make an effort for the recovery of his dominions, that failing, Whidah still continued under a viceroy of the king of Dahomay, though the people enjoy their ancient laws. The fourth division of the Slave coast is the kingdom of Ardrah, which is said to be bounded on the west by the river Volta, on the east by the kingdom of Benin Proper, on the south by the ocean, and on the north, by the kingdoms of Oyeo and Alghemi. Towards the coast it is very confined, spreading as it extends northward in the form of a triangle. The coast comprehends a space of twenty leagues. The metropolis is called by the natives Assem, and by the Europeans Great Ardrah; it is the royal residence, and said to be a fine city, five or six leagues in circumference. But the buildings are of clay

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covered with straw. Between all the cities are great roads ... are also canals between the rivers, which are constantly cov... canoes; the vallies are pleasant, and produce wheat, mil... potatoes, lemons, oranges, cocoa nuts, and palm wine. ... marshes they make salt by evaporation. The air is not w... yet the natives who escape the small-pox are robust, he... long-lived. The king is absolute. The chief priest is ... dignity, and prime minister in both spirituals and tempo... prince royal and high priest enjoy the exclusive privilege ... to the king standing face to face, the other subjects pros... selves, and raise their heads only to receive an answer. ... is hereditary, the government most despotick. Though ... of Ardrah are less superstitious than any other on the ... priests are very numerous, who appoint to every family ... worship; to some an alligator, to some a bird; even moun... and stones, as among the ancient Greeks and Romans, have their votaries: for such is man unenlightened from heaven. Yet have they some confused ideas of a supreme being. Due west of the Slave coast lies that denominated the Gold coast, extending two degrees, and four minutes in longitude, and three degrees and a half in latitude. The commencement of this coast, which contains a variety of petty kingdoms or states, is near Issini, and the termination three or four leagues from Akra. There are eight real monarchies having their proper kings, who, ere the arrival of the Europeans, were called captains; the rest of the states are republicks. Upon the river Ankobar or Cobre, which land is properly the first country of the Gold coast, are a number of towns composing the provinces of Ankobar, Aborrel, and Eguira; the first of which is a monarchy, and the others republics. Eight leagues east of Cape Apollonia stands the town of Axim, the canton of which name is very fertile in rice, water melons, ananas, bananas, cocoas, oranges and lemons, with abundance of other fruits, and in vegetables of all kinds. Yet great is the humidity of both the air and soil. Axim produces likewise great quantities of black cattle, sheep, goats, and tame pigeons, as well as other fowls. The whole country is filled with populous villages. The soil is fertile, and the lands well cultivated, and the

ich from the traffick they maintain with the Europeans ld dust. The government of Axim is composed of two hief men, and the young men. The cognizance of all rs belongs to both these bodies, and those of more private first. But most corrupt appears to be their administra- ws. Next to Axim on the east lies the kingdom of l by the negroes Anta, of extent from east to west about The country is mountainous, well wooded, and watered, But though formerly populous and powerfull, its wars ghbours have nearly depopulated it; it is represented as lthy situation on the coast, and capable of being made a ar colony. To give a distinct account of all the little s coast is by no means compatible with the brevity of an Suffice it therefore to say, that by the little kingdom of the much larger of Fetu, the very small one of Sabu, and h larger one of Fantin, with the kingdoms of Acron, Agonna, and Aquamboe, the whole extent of the Gold coast is occupied; being throughout a fine and fertile country, and supposed to contain much greater stores of that valued metal than the natives permit to be explored, while small European settlements for the sake of trade are numerous along the shore of this rich country. Of the many kingdoms said to lie in the interior little is known, their names however ought to be mentioned. The first is the kingdom Insoko, five days journey from the maritime part of Aquamboe, the natives of which are said to be expert weavers of silks and cloths; but acquainted with gold and ivory only as curiosities. All that is known of the next country, named Comanna is, that its natives bring great quantities of gold to Akkaradi, a kingdom adjoining it on the west. Then follow in a regular series the kingdoms, as they are called, of Latabi, Equeo, Bonu, standing far north, Tafu, Quaka, Aboni, Sankuy, Agua, and Achem, all supposed to be rich in gold, particularly Quaka. The general channel of their trade turns to the countries bordering on the Niger, to the northern kingdom of Meezora, and the empire of Gago, celebrated for the profusion of gold it sends by caravans to Tombuctoo, and Morocco. West of Achem, is the country of Inta or Assiento, considered by some as the

same kingdom, but which is little known; yet its situation near the head of the Rio Sacro de Costa, is very advantageous for trade, and it is said to be rich in gold. Still farther west lies the country of Dinkira, the gold of which is fine. The next kingdom of note known by travellers is Quiforo, called also Juffer; but from want of intercourse with it from the coast, very little known. The same may be said of Vanqui to the east of it, and Vassabs to the west; the natives of the former of which weave elegant gold stuffs, and the latter famous for its astonishing wealth in gold. Manpa is mentioned as the next province westward, and beyond that the celebrated kingdom of Adom, which is populous, fertile, and rich. Next follow the countries of Jaben, Grand Incassen, Equina, and Avina, differing little from Adom, to which they are contiguous, either in trade, produce, laws, or customs, and affording no materials for history. Immediately on the west of the Gold lies the Ivory coast, extending from Cape Apollonia to Cape Palmas. The principal towns of it stand at the mouths of those rivers from which they borrow their names. They are in number eight, Grava or Grua, Great Tabo, Little Tabo, Great Drewin, Batrou, Laho, Apollonia, and Vallo. With the interior country Europeans are little acquainted, the natives refusing even to trade with them, but with the greatest caution. The inhabitants on the coast, where stand the towns of Tabo and Drewin, are said to be the most savage on the whole coast of Africa, and have the reputation of being men-eaters. The country about the river St. Andrew is fertile in every kind of grain, fruit, and roots. Here are fine natural groves of orange, limé, cocoa, and citron trees. Here the sugar cane, with a thousand other plants growing without culture, are abandoned to the ravages of the elephant, and as haunts for wild beasts. The natives are well made, and not deficient in courage or intellect. Their women are small, but neatly proportioned, with regular features, lively eyes, and teeth white, small, and even. Their elephants must be very large, many of their teeth weighing above two hundred pounds. But the advantageous commerce which might be carried on on this coast, is in great part lost, through the disposition of the natives, whose courtesy is the effect of design, and exhibited to entice the mariners ashore, nor is their

y inferior to their craft. The English, Portuguese, and Dutch, all had men here seduced on shore, murdered, and probably But at Lahò the natives are of a mild disposition, yet sharp greedy in trade. Near Cape Apollonia is the kingdom of here, governed in the year seventeen hundred and three, by a called Assamouchon, much respected by her neighbours, and d by her subjects; of a masculine genius, spending her whole the camp, and heading her armies; and she was ever suc- l in her enterprizes. Her kingdom, though narrow towards a, stretches far inland, and is well peopled, rich, and renowned ommerce. The natives of Cape Apollonia have formed a lican government, under the protection of the Dutch, who ted their trading with any others. The country near it is well d. The religion of the people on the Ivory coast, is like that ose on the Gold, a miserable farrago of superstition. The ity of ivory offered for sale on this coast is accounted for by port of the natives, that the inland countries, and especially the ains, are so stocked with elephants, that the natives are for y obliged to bury themselves in the rocks and caverns at ; yet of late years their numbers have greatly decreased by a distemper which has arisen among them. On the west of the Ivory coast, ending at Cape Palmas, lies the Grain coast, denominated also Malaguetta, extending to the river Sanguin, a space of about sixty miles. The climate of this region is rendered unwholesome by the noxious exhalations from the banks of the rivers and the shore of the sea. The productions of the soil are pulse, gourds, lemons, oranges, and bananas, and a peculiarly good, but nameless nut. The palm wine and dates are excellent; beeves, swine, sheep, and goats are very plentifull; but the chief article of the Grain coast, is the Guinea pepper; yet the demand for this is now much diminished by the introduction of the Molucca spices, and the chief commerce consists in ivory and slaves. The natives, though in other respects not intemperate, are not remarkable for chastity, and they have, in common with all negroes, a strong propensity to theft. Their language is so peculiar and difficult to even the nations nearest to them, that all trade is carried

on by signs. Their chief, whom they call Tab[illegible] despotick authority; they are in worship pagans, bu[illegible] future state. In the seventeenth century, capital pu[illegible] rare, the criminals being rather sold for slaves; from [illegible] this trade, the former possibly may increase. The s[illegible] of many of the natives of this country is fishing; yet [illegible] for being attacked by a neighbouring nation, they [illegible] slaying a great many, and making a multitude of p[illegible] they sold to Europeans. In every part of the Gr[illegible] are ingenious workmen in metals, but at Sestos they [illegible] expert, having improved on the instruction given them [illegible] and are said to excell every European nation in t[illegible] When the Portuguese were, about the year sixteen [illegible] sixty-four, supplanted in the trade of this coast by the [illegible] Dutch, they retired into the interior country, and united themselves with the natives by marriage; whence sprung a mixed race, more numerous here than in any part of Guinea. These African-Portuguese have established an extensive power in many parts of Africa, their complexion and alliances gaining them every where the liberty of commerce; whence they have penetrated into the remotest parts of Ethiopia, superior and inferior. The next country on the coast of Africa, as we proceed northward, is Sierra Leona, extending from the northwestern extremity of the Grain coast to Cape Verga, with uncertain limits inland. This country has the advantage of a number of streams, besides the rivers Sierra Leona, and Scherbro, some of which are navigable for several miles. Though there are within the district of Sierra Leona a number of petty kingdoms, neither the natural productions, or the manners of the people, have any thing strikingly different; it will therefore be requisite to speak of those only about the great river of the same name with the region. Here then are produced in great plenty and perfection, lemons, oranges, citrons, and bananas, ananas, Indian figs, water-melons, pears, cassava, white prunes, manioke, pulse, and the nut kola. Fowls, swine, hares, and deer, are in great abundance. In the mountains numerous are the elephants, lions, tigers, wild boars, apes, and monkeys, together with serpents of an enormous size. The

monkeys* make incursions into the plantations in bands, and do much mischief. In the woods are found vast numbers of parrots, parroquets, pigeons, and other birds, of the greatest beauty. The sea and rivers afford the same fish, as in the other parts of Guinea. Every part of the country is covered with wood and fruit-trees, some of which, however, are virulently poisonous. The inhabitants on the sides of the Sierra Leona are not so black or flat-nosed as most of the other negroes; but they are malicious, jealous, and turbulent in their dispositions: yet they are sober and temperate, though extremely fond of spirits. In Sierra Leona, as well as in many other parts of Africa, the negroes wear on their arms and legs, or breasts, little figures, which they call grisgris, and to which they pay a constant worship, and whenever they eat or drink offer a portion. Senegal is the only district yet unnoticed, between Sierra Leona, and the confines of the great desert; and the accounts we have of this, are principally confined to the history, not of the natives, but of the European factories, on the two great rivers the Gambia and the Senegal. The former of these discharges itself into the ocean between Cape Verd and Cape Roxo, but its channel is here divided by several islands. The magnitude of the river, however, may be conjectured by its being at Joar, fifty leagues up, a mile broad, and easily accessible to a forty gun ship; and even at Barakonda, five hundred miles up, it is navigable for ships of an hundred and fifty tons. This river is enriched with a number of beautifull islands, some of them covered with wood and filled with animals. On the banks of it are several small kingdoms, among which the English settlements extend as far as four hundred and eighty-four miles from the sea. The chief articles of trade on this river, are gold, slaves, ivory, and wax; of which last, great quantities are produced in all

* One species of these called *barry*, is said to be of a monstrous height, and amazing docility; when young they learn to walk erect, and seldom choose any other posture: they grind their rice or millet, steep it in water, carry it in vessels on their heads, and turn the spit when meat is roasting. Scarcely any thing appears too difficult for this imitative animal; they will even open oysters, of which they are great lovers, with a knife. Here the negroes are fond of their flesh, preferring it to that of all other animals, except the elephant.

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the kingdoms along the river. The Senegal is one of the largest rivers in Africa, the course of it, already traced as far as the lake Bennin, being, it is stated, upwards of eight hundred leagues: but the barbarity and cruelty of the natives of the country thro[ugh] [which] it runs, form no small impediment to the investigation of [its course]. This river separates the country of the negroes from t[he] Moors of the desert, and is very rapid in its stream un[til] near its opening, the mouth of it being but half a league over, a[nd] with a bar of sand, which renders the entrance both di[ffi]cult and dangerous; but this passed, in the course of a league [it] presents itself, on the south side, clothed with verdure, the trees in perpetual bloom, and flocks feeding in plentifull pasture. The great trade of this river is that of the gum Senega, Senegal, or Arabick. The tree producing this gum is described as a species of evergreen prickly acacia. Of this there are three forests, between the north bank of the Niger and Cape Blanco, at nearly equal distances from each other, that is, about ten leagues. The gum is produced twice a year; that of December, after the rains have ceased, is the best, spontaneously exuding from the tree, whereas that of March is procured by incision. The gathering of it in those forests is the employment, during the seasons, of three different tribes of Moors; whose chiefs are all teachers of the Mahometan law, and adepts in hypocrisy.

Inland Countries.

Having now brought the account of the African coast up to the desert of Zaara before described, the inland countries not yet spoken of require some notice. The first people met with are the Quabes, on the southern bank of the river Sestos; formerly subdued by the king of Folgia, but having recovered their liberty, are protected in it by the emperour of Manou. Next lie the powerfull nation of the Folgia, and the empire of Manou; the limits of both of which are unknown. The Folgians are dependent on the empire of Manou, and the Quojans on them. The sovereign of Manou has extended his authority over most of the neighbouring nations so far as to render their princes tributary. Next follows the kingdom of Lower Quoja, comprehending all the space from Cape Masurado to the river Scherbro, surrounding the coast in an ark of a circle. Upper

Quoja lies further northward, having on the north the kingdom of Hondo, Silm on the north-west, and of eastern Bolm on the south. As to the kingdoms of Galas, Galavery, Hondo, and Kareao, nothing is known but their names, and that they form a chain behind the maritime provinces, from Quoja to the kingdom of Mitombo. The two last kingdoms are Silm and Bolm, the last tributary to the king of Quoja. The chief occupation of the negroes of these kingdoms, as they are termed, is husbandry. The general language is the Quojan, in various dialects. They acknowledge one Supreme Being, Creatour of all things; but though ascribing to him boundless power, perfect knowledge and omnipresence, they are not unanimous as to his eternity; some affirming he will be succeeded by another Being, who punishes vice and rewards virtue. They call the spirits of the dead, jannanins or protectors, and their veneration for them is extreme. Nor do they believe less firmly in magicians and sorcerors than in spirits; they have separate institutions for the instruction of youth of both sexes, in which indecent dancing and singing form a prominent portion. The emperour of Manou preserves his power over his tributary states, by wisely having his council composed of the most sensible and experienced men of the nation; by the mildness of his government, and the simple and equitable distribution of justice. The whole history of the region above described consists in the tale of some conquests and wars of the kingdoms of Karrow and Folgia, in which the last triumphed; but the Folgians having conceived a great esteem for the last, Flansire, the Folgian monarch, not only left the young king of Karrow in possession of his dominions, but married his sister. The Quabes, before mentioned, about this time attacking the Folgians, Flonikerri, the king of Karrow, hastened to the assistance of his brother-in-law, obtained a signal victory over his enemies, and made an absolute conquest of their country. After which he was employed by the king of Folgia to re-establish Manimassa, brother of the late king of Manou, on the throne of Gala, in which enterprize he succeeded. Then pleased with an account he had received of Cape Monte, with the consent of his brother-in-law, he undertook and rapidly achieved the conquest of that; but granting the inhabitants their liberty, only

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formed an alliance with them; but while he was meditating fresh conquests, he was attacked by the ungratefull son of Manimassa, whom he had fixed on the throne of Gala, and fell after a most gallant defence, in an engagement in which still the Karrowans were victorious, under his brother and successor, Killimanzo; who afterwards subdued the aggressing nation, and thus under this prince and his successors, the Karrowans, assisted by the Folgians, extended their conquests over the neighbouring states, and rendered their nation formidable through all the west of Guinea, while they themselves were tributary to the emperour of Manou. In the country to the east of Guinea and Senegal lie the kingdoms of Mandingo, Fouli, and Jaloff. All the tribes dwelling on the banks of the Gambia, bear the general name of Mandingoes, and are said exactly to resemble each other in complexion, features, and language, as well as in manners and policy. The kingdom is represented as of great extent, though its frontiers are by no means known. The Mandingoes in general are a lively people, spending half their time in musick, dancing, and mirth, but through their impetuosity are perpetually engaged in quarrels, which sometimes end in bloodshed. To sow and reap they are obliged; but fishing and hunting are unknown to them, and every manly employment is so likewise. Except the amusements above mentioned, smoking tobacco seems to be their whole pleasure; yet they are in general a very healthy people. The Jaloffs are situated to the north-west of the Mandingoes. They have an exceeding black, yet handsomer complexion than most of the neighbouring nations, and are said to be well made, active, and robust. The Jaloffs near the coast, are said to differ in their manners from those inland, and to be a most fraudulent and shameless race, while the others are represented as brave, generous, and hospitable. As there are a number of petty kings included under the general name of Jaloff princes, there are in the country perpetual wars, in which, through their use of poisoned arrows, the slain were numerous, but would have been much more so, had not the combatants considered their own interest in making prisoners, that they might sell them for slaves. One of the most potent of the monarchs above mentioned, is the king of Barsalli, on the river Gambia. On that of the Senegal,

is particularly specified the kingdom of Galam; and on the east and north-east is the kingdom of Casson. The religion of the nations on the river Senegal, and of those on the east and south in the interior countries, is the Mahometan. All the other negroes to the western extremity of Guinea Proper are idolaters; except it is said the Sereres, who are without any idea of religion at all. On the east of the kingdom of Jaloff, lies that of Fouli or Pholey, extending from west to east an hundred and eighty-seven miles, but its limits from south to north are not ascertained. Its lands are fertile, its inhabitants numerous. They are low in stature, but their shape and gait pleasing, having an air peculiarly delicate and interesting. They are diligent husbandmen, and raise millet, rice, tobacco, cotton, pease, roots, and fruits. Neither are they less expert in rearing cattle, with which they trade to the neighbouring countries, the Foulis are fond of hunting, and very skilfull in the chace. The elephant is their principal game. In their disposition they are lively, and polite in manner, and fond to excess of European commodities, but preferring stealing to purchasing them. As their wealth consists chiefly in their cattle, they lead a wandering life with their droves. The labour of this life is augmented by the necessity of constantly defending themselves and their cattle against the lions and tigers, with which their country abounds on land, and the crocodiles from the rivers. At night they collect their flocks within a circle of tents and huts in which they live, and where they light fires to deter those animals from approaching. The Mandingoes have erected a kind of tyranny in Fouli, and seize on the wealth of the kingdom. The king of this country is called a Siratick, and has great authority over his subjects. The crown descends from brother to brother, or to a nephew; but disregarding this custom, the siratick who reigned towards the close of the seventeenth century, drove his nephew, a prince of very amiable character, out of the country, raising his own son to the throne; but on his father's death he was deposed, and his cozen recalled from the kingdom of Galam, where he had taken refuge, and placed on it. The people of Fouli are renowned for their mildness, benevolence, and hospitality, yet there is not in Africa a braver people.

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Having now laid before the reader a sketch of what is known of Lower Ethiopia, his attention must next be called to the regions of Africa southward of Guinea and Benin; though of the kingdom of Biafara, which lies to the eastward of the latter, no notice having been yet taken, it must be observed, that it is divided from Medra by a chain of mountains, and that the natives are exceedingly addicted to magick, and with great zeal worship and sacrifice their children to the devil. To the south-west of this kingdom lies the country of the Calbangos, a wicked, deceitfull, and filthy people, among whom parents sell their children, husbands their wives, and brothers their sisters. The province of Calbaria, lies due west of the Calbangos. The town of Calbaria is a place of considerable trade with the Dutch. On the eastern side of this province the negroes eat their slain enemies. The provinces of Belli Moco, Krike, and Bani, occupy all the country to the coast, and the intermediate part of the coast, from Bani to the beginning of Loango, appertaining to Benin already described. Of the interior kingdoms of Ansiko and Fungeno or Fugeno, an account may now best be given. The dominions of the king of Ansiko, called also the great Macoco, are said to extend over thirteen kingdoms. The boundaries of Ansiko to the east are not mentioned; to the west, it has the Amboes, who border on Loango; on the north, some deserts of Nubia; and to the south, part of Congo, and the kingdom of Fungeno. The Ansikans make no appropriation of their lands, but lead an erratick life, living by plunder and slaughter, dreaded for their intrepidity and extreme brutality, never traded with by the Europeans, though in all appearance not deceitfull. Their food is said to be human flesh, and they have publick markets in which it is sold, and prisoners of war are fattened, killed, and eaten, or sold to butchers. Discontented slaves offer themselves for food to their masters. On the nearest relations a meal is made without the least horror, and even infants just born are eaten by their unnatural mothers. The Ansikans are idolaters, worshipping the sun under the figure of a man as their chief deity, and the moon under that of a woman, with a multitude of inferior objects of worship. The kingdom of Fungeno or Fugeno is tributary to the great Macoco, and lies south

of it; and to the east of Congo, and to the south-east of Macoco, is the kingdom of Nimeamago. Having thus far viewed the circumjacent kingdoms, that of Loango now demands our notice. This was once a part of the great kingdom of Congo, and commencing under the second degree of south latitude, extends southward one hundred and eighty degrees along the African coast, and from west to east it runs about three hundred miles. It is fertile and populous, and the inhabitants employ themselves in the arts of peace, husbandry, manufactures, and commerce. The metropolis, Loango, stands under about four degrees and a half south, and about five or six miles from the sea. The streets are wide, and kept very clean. The royal palace forms near the centre of it a square of a mile and a half in circumference. To this kingdom there may formerly have belonged on the north the provinces of Majumba, Sette, Camma, and Gobbi, quite up to Cape Lobo Gonzales. The natives of the first are rude and savage; the land dry and sandy, produces little or no grain, but great quantities of wine from their palm trees; and the roots of a plant termed Maxondo form a substitute for bread. They have too plenty of fish and game. But their dogs not possessing the power of barking, an European dog has sold among them for thirty pound. Sette was once an independent kingdom, but afterwards reduced under that of Loango, and is remarkable principally for the logwood it produces. The country however abounds with a variety of fruit and other trees, and its woods swarm with wild beasts. The language, manners, and customs of Camma and Gobbi are nearly the same with those of Loango; their rivers abound with a variety of fish, but the land breeds little else than beasts of prey. On the south of the proper Loango, either dependent on it, or having been so, lie the kingdoms of Cacongo and Angoy. The territory of the former of these is flat, the air more wholesome, and the soil more fertile, than in the neighbouring kingdoms to the southward. The inhabitants too are more civilized, though not less addicted to superstitious rites than their neighbours, nor, by one account, much honester in their conduct. On the south of Cacongo lies the kingdom of Angoy; which is but of small extent either way, and was formerly a province of Cacongo, until the prince of it having

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married a Portuguese lady, was persuaded by his father-in-law to seize a very favourable conjuncture, and erect it into an independent kingdom. The country is full of wood and thickets, having only one town of note, named Bomangoy. The people are lazy, and breed not cattle but hogs, yet of poultry they have plenty. The wild beasts swarm so in their woods, that they destroy all the tamer kinds. The natives have both publick and domestick idols; one standing before every door. Of Loango Proper itself, to what has been before said, may be added, that though the soil is fertile, the natives are too averse to exertion to plant or sow more than will barely suffice for the wants of each year; whence it often happens that a bad season is followed by famine, though all the fruits of the climate grow plentifully there. Of horned cattle indeed they have but few, except goats; still hogs and poultry are in great plenty; and pheasants, partridges, and wild fowl, in still greater abundance; and on the coast great quantities of fish are caught. The natives of Loango are called Bramas, are tall, stout, well shaped, and well behaved, much improved from the wild cannibals which they once were, and they carry on a variety of trades and handicrafts. The children of the natives are born white, but in two days time become as black as their parents. But here is also another sort of white children, born of negro parents, yet as white as ours in Europe, having grey eyes, yellow hair, and a complexion not unlike some of our northern people. But there is in that complexion no life, it resembling a whited wall; while their eyes appear fixed, and to have scarcely any sight but by moonlight, or in the dusk. These are by the natives called Dondos, and by the Portuguese white Moors. These mongrels are the chief persons employed in all religious affairs and superstitious ceremonies; yet neither they, or any of the Loangonese, have any tolerable notion of a Supreme Being. Or, if they do acknowledge one under the name of Sambo Pongo, they neither fear, love, or worship him. All their invocations and worship are directed to demons; some of whom they believe to preside over the air, some over the earth, and so on; and they represent them by various images. The commerce of this country consists chiefly in slaves, though the natives likewise sell great quantities of

ivory, tin, lead, iron, and copper. After the governours of the several provinces of Loango had revolted from the kingdom of Congo, one of them growing rich and powerfull enough to subdue the rest, not only assumed the royal title, but rendered himself so absolute in his new kingdom, as to be in some measure worshipped as a God by his subjects. They gave him the title of Sambo Pongo, and addressed him with the greatest solemnity for rain and fruitfull seasons. This monarch is capable of bringing great armies into the field. The inheritance of the crown as well as that of private estates descends not to the proprietor's own children, but to those of his elder brother or sister. Of the history of the monarchs of Loango little is known, but that after they had freed their dominions from subjection to Congo, they continued sometime in a state of war with that kingdom; since the conclusion of which they have lived in not only peace, but friendship with it. To the south of Loango, and divided from it by the river Zair, lies the kingdom of Congo Proper, extending about three degrees from north to south; but how far from east to west is not ascertained, though its limits have been greatly contracted. The extreme indolence of the natives induces them to neglect that cultivation of their land which would render it fertile; still various are its products in grain, pulse, fruit trees, and other plants, and in roots and flowers. So rank is the grass in the lowlands, as to form a covert not only for venomous insects, but for wild beasts. The principal river, the Zair, discharges itself into the ocean by seven mouths, and has a very long course, not even taking the name of Zair until about one hundred and sixty leagues before it arrives at the sea. The Portuguese made themselves masters of this kingdom, and having persuaded the natives to receive what they taught them as Christianity, they divided it into six provinces, to which they gave the names of duchies, marquisates, and counties, and divided these again into lordships. The capital of the whole kingdom is Banza, named by the Europeans St. Salvador; it is situated on the south-east side of the river Zair, about fifty leagues from the sea, upon a very high hill. The town about two leagues in compass, stands on an angle of the mountain. Of the smaller provinces of Congo Proper, which are independent of the six principal above mentioned, the greater part are

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barren, and inhabited only by savages leading a life little different from that of brutes. The kingdom of Congo, like most other parts of Africa, breeds a vast variety of living creatures, both wild and tame, but especially of the former. Some of their elephants, which go in herds of an hundred or more, are of a prodigious size; the most common way of catching them is by pit-falls. Lions, tigers, leopards, wolves, and other beasts of prey are numerous, and the Zebra is hunted by the natives for its flesh. Here are abundance of buffaloes and wild asses, and also of elks. Though they have great numbers of beeves, sheep, swine, and horses, through pride and indolence they generally neglect them. Great too is the variety of their land and water fowls; their ostriches are numerous, and of a very great size. Of fish likewise there is plenty on the coast; and the country is infested with serpents of monstrous size, rattle-snakes, vipers, and other venomous animals; some of which are said to poison by their breath. Nor are the ants, of various kinds and astonishing dental powers, the least plague of the country. This kingdom is represented as very populous, and the people of it full as conceited of themselves and their country as the Chinese, while the shameless beggars think open robbery neither unlawfull nor scandalous. They are, for the most part, jealous, envious, and treacherous, and are educated so as to eradicate all natural affection. The religion of those not converted by the Portuguese is a monstrous compound of superstition, and the most absurd and detestable rites. They acknowledge indeed in the Creatour a supreme being, but they believe in a variety of inferior deities. The government of Congo is monarchical and despotick. All the lands belong to the king, and are holden by tribute and particular services. The founder of this monarchy was named Laqueni, the son of a petty prince on the banks of the Zair, whose ambition led him to invade the territories of his neighbours; and having had considerable success in this on his proving of a spirit acceptable to his savage followers, was by them proclaimed their king, and conquered the province of Congo, extending more than an hundred and eighty miles from the mouth of the Zair. Having secured the affection of his officers by distributing among them the government of his newly conquered provinces, they

strove to add to his dominions, until they had reduced to his obedience the kingdoms of Angola and Metamba. The successors of Laqueni have retained the throne from that time, though they have lost several provinces, besides that of Angola, of the best if not the largest part of which the Portuguese have made themselves masters, and that of Metamba, which was taken from them about the same time. It was in the year fourteen hundred and eighty-four that this country was first visited by Europeans; and the Portuguese, under a commander of the name of Cam, in the course of the following year made a treaty of alliance with the king of Congo, which has subsisted ever since; and that prince having from the report of some of his subjects, who had been carried to Portugal and returned home, conceived an high regard for the Portuguese, sent one of his young nobles to entreat the king of Portugal to send some persons to instruct him and his subjects in the Christian faith, and with him a number of other young Congoese to be educated in it. These continued nearly three years in Portugal, where great attention was paid to their instruction, and on their return to Congo the king built a church for the Christians, and was himself baptized together with his queen. His eldest son afterwards became a convert, and was christened Alphonso; but his younger brother proved an unconquerable enemy to Christianity, and prevailed on his father to apostatize and persecute all that refused to do the same. The younger son, named Panzo Aquitima, now became the head of a powerfull Anti-christian party, and by a false accusation procured the banishment of his brother; yet his treachery being quickly detected, Alphonso was recalled and entrusted with one of the chief governments of the kingdom, in which by prohibiting idolatry, he drove a great number of the natives into his brother's party. But the old king's death quickly occurring, Alphonso entered the capital, and was proclaimed king; and on his brother's leading up an army to attack him, Alphonso proved victorious, and his brother in his flight met with an accident, which he survived but two days. The king's zealous patronage of Christianity accelerated the propagation of it among his subjects, and ere he died, he saw the greater part of them confirmed in it. His son and successor, of the name of Pedro, complied with the dying exhortations, and followed

A. D. 1521.

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the example of his father. His reign lasted only nine years, and his brother Francisco, to whom, having no child of his own, he left the crown, and who possessed the same good qualities, enjoyed a reign of only two years; being succeeded at his decease by his first cozen, Diego. This monarch did every thing in his power to oblige the Portuguese; he conformed to their manners, and imitated them even in their luxury; but he did not sit on the throne more than eight years, and died without children. The Portuguese being now become in the kingdom both very numerous and opulent, a party of them ventured to place an individual elected by themselves, and not even of the royal blood, on the throne. This bold enterprize quickly excited the whole kingdom against them; they took arms, and all the Portuguese concerned were massacred. This execution ended, the states of the kingdom raised Henriques, said by some to be a brother of the late king, to the sovereignty. Though a prince of excellent qualities, his reign proved short and troublesome. Soon after his election, being engaged in a war with the Anzicans, a nation of canibals, he was defeated, and after a reign of two years died through grief. To him succeeded his son Alvarez, stated to have been a wise and brave prince; he sent an embassy to Sebastian, king of Portugal, then preparing to revenge the massacre of the Portuguese, and convinced that monarch that their own conduct caused it. But no sooner had Alvarez alloyed the threatening appearances on that side, than his dominions were invaded by the Giagas, and ravaged with fire and sword; unable to withstand whose numerous forces, the king of Congo retired to one of the islands in the Zair, where famine and pestilence destroyed a vast number of his men. Neither after the retreat of the Giagas were his subjects, after rebuilding their habitations, in a much better situation; famine not only at first oppressed them, but in the next year the ravages of unnumbered locusts continued and even increased the distress of it, insomuch that parents were necessitated to sell one of their children to support the rest, and the Portuguese ships did not suffice to transport to the Brasils the slaves offered for sale.* This famine was naturally followed by a pestilence

* Should such an occurrence take place after the abolition of the slave trade, will not the natives eat, instead of sell their children?

arising from the badness of the provisions which had been eaten; the king himself fell into a disorder which terminated fatally. But ere this the wishes of the Portuguese to discover some mines of the precious metals being counteracted by king Alvarez, the richest of their merchants left his dominions, and the commerce of them daily decayed, while a supply of missionaries being withholden, Christianity rapidly lost ground. Nor did any of the efforts made by Alvarez to obtain a supply succeed ere his death, when the crown of Congo descended to his son, Alvarez the second, under whose reign, by the help of missionaries from Europe, Christianity again revived, and who after a reign of twenty-seven years left the crown to his eldest son, Bernard. But this prince had filled the throne but a twelvemonth, when he fell A. D. 1614. by either the hand or the order of his next brother, Alvarez; who immediately caused himself to be proclaimed under the name of Alvarez the third. This murderer is said to have made a good king, and zealous promoter of Christianity, but it may be doubted whether the favour he showed to the capuchin friars has not gained him a better character than he deserved. He died in the seventh year of his reign, and was succeeded by his son, Pedro the second, who reigned only two years; during which he gave such proofs of wisdom and justice, that he died greatly regretted by all his subjects. What A. D. 1624. relation his successor, Garzia, bare to him, is not known; but during a reign as short as that of his predecessor, he appeared an excellent prince, and gained the esteem of his subjects. Ambrosio, who succeeded him, bare a character equally high, but his reign was not extended to five years. Alvarez the fourth, son of Alvarez the third, then ascended the throne, which he filled for nearly the same period. The reign of his successor was unjust and short. By groundless suspicions he impelled two of his nobility to take arms in their own defence, and though after they had defeated and taken him prisoner, they proved their loyalty by restoring him with the greatest respect to his throne, the ungratefull monarch attacked them again; when he was justly slain in battle, and the principal of the nobles he had attacked, the duke of Bamba, was unanimously chosen king, and was proclaimed under the name of Alvarez the sixth. He proved a wise and virtuous prince; but ere he could do much for his subjects, was

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murdered by his own brother, Garzia, who by the force with which he was accompanied, obliged the states to elect him in his room, and was styled Garzia the second. He had not been long on the throne before his eagerness to secure the succession in his family, induced him to commit the most sanguinary iniquities, and to persecute those who spoke in favour of the victims of his jealousy. Alarmed at the detestation which his cruelties had excited, he recalled to court all the idolatrous magicians; who, finding his eldest son, Alphonso, firmly attached to Christianity, so prejudiced his father against him, that he declared him incapable of succeeding to the crown, and caused his second to be elected and crowned king; and dying in the twenty-first year of his reign, left him, who inherited all his vices, to execute his last bloody commands. Antonio, the first of that name, did not long defer the execution of his father's will. He ordered his brother, Alphonso, to be cruelly butchered, he put to death also his younger brethren, and all the remaining princes of the ancient royal blood, who had not escaped from the kingdom; and his cruelty became at length so great, that he could scarcely find servants, or even slaves to attend on him. At length menacing destruction to the Portuguese, they took arms in their own defence, and a battle taking place, Antonio was defeated and slain. In the confusion which then ensued, a prince of the blood, who had appeared too despicable even for the late tyrant to persecute, collected a sufficient force to seize the throne, and cause himself to be proclaimed by the name of Alvarez the seventh. This man's reign was an uninterrupted series of the most horrid murders, extortions, and licentiousness of all kinds, until his subjects rose and expelled him; when another prince of the blood was placed on the throne, who assumed the name of Alvarez the eighth, who promised to have made his subjects once more happy; but the distractions and exhausted state of the kingdom furnished the then marquis of Pemba with an opportunity to revolt, and wrench from him the crown, ere he had worn it four years. With which occurrence close all the documents we have for the history of Congo.

To the south of Congo Proper lies the kingdom of Angola, which, with the conquests made by its monarchs since it has ceased to be a

province of Congo, has a coast of upwards of four hundred and eighty miles; but its extent inland is very different, and for the most part unknown. The province of Angola Proper, which is parted from Congo Proper only by the river Danda, has on the east the kingdoms of Metamba and higher Gangila, and the ocean on the west. The whole is very mountainous. The kingdom of Angola is divided into seventeen provinces, among which that of Benguela still retains the name of a kingdom, though reduced to a level with the rest. The capital of Angola is situated on an island on the coast of the kingdom of Bengo, and called San Paulo de Loanda, built by the Portuguese in fifteen hundred and seventy-eight. Pleasantly situated on the declivity of an hill near the sea coast, it is said to contain three thousand stone houses belonging to the Portuguese. The streets are straight, wide, and regular; but the houses of the negro inhabitants, while they are much the most numerous, are mean, being built of earth only, and thatched with straw. Indeed throughout this kingdom its capabilities are neglected by the indolence of its natives; who appear not to do even what they might to repress the ravages of the multitude of wild beasts, with which the country abounds; but in the islands of which, and other parts secure from their attacks, are bred great numbers of usefull cattle. Of the seventeen provinces mentioned as composing the kingdom of Angola, eleven are really in subjection to the king of Portugal; and in these the profession of Christianity much prevails. When the Portuguese first visited this country, it was ruled by a governour, who had rendered himself independent of the kingdom of Congo, to which his predecessors had previously been subject, and the king of Angola had by his conquests become little inferior to that of Congo; with whom he rather preserved an amicable intercourse by presents than paid him tribute. The Angolick language differs but little from that of Congo, and slaves are the chief commodity which the Portuguese obtain in barter for their European goods; and which to their honour it should be remarked, they treat with great attention and humanity; though still the trade itself is the cause, in many cases, of the most horrid villainy and cruel oppression. The first of the governours who shook off the Congoese yoke was called Ngola, or as-

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the Portuguese write it, Angola, and entering into an alliance with the Portuguese, he with their assistance rendered himself independent, and assumed the royal title, and so firmly established his power, as from his subject to become the friend and ally of the king of Congo. He lived to a great age, and was at last assassinated by a treacherous slave whom he had raised to be viceroy of his kingdom, and who seized the throne; but pretended to hold it only for the late king's eldest daughter, he having left no son, until a sudden death compelled him to vacate it. The former king's daughter, named Zunda Riongola, was then acknowledged queen; but though her moderation and prudence at first gained the affection of her subjects, she afterwards became the slave of jealousy, which both prevented her from marrying, and at length excited her to murder her sister's son the presumptive heir to the crown. The vengeance of his father and mother soon overtook the nefarious queen, and she died by the hand of her enraged sister; whose surviving son was crowned and assumed the reins of government. This young prince, named after his father, Ngola Chilvagni, proved a warrior of the first rank, and quickly enlarged his dominions by the conquest of several provinces on the east and south frontiers. His fame gradually rose so high that powerfull nations submitted to him, even before his approach. He lived to a good old age, died greatly regretted, and left a numerous progeny. Having named for his successor, Dambi Angola, one of his younger sons, this proved a monster of perfidy, cruelty, avarice, and lewdness, and on his ascending the throne caused all his brethren to be put to death, except two who escaped from his hands. His reign happily proved short; yet he was honoured with a magnificent funeral, and a tomb consisting of a prodigious number of human victims was sacrificed to his ghost. He was succeeded by Ngola Chilvagni, a warlike but cruelly ambitious prince, whose surprising success so inflated him, that at length he began to require divine honours. He was however forced to submit to the common fate of mortals, and also to die childless. The states elected for his successor a great nephew of Ngola Chilvagni Quiasama, named Ngingha Angola, who proving a tyrannical and cruel prince, happily for his subjects died, after a very short reign.

His son and successor, Bandi Angoli, proving still more cruel than his father, a general revolt of his subjects ensued, and some of the neighbouring Giagas being called in to their assistance, the tyrant was reduced to such a desperate situation, that he sent for assistance to the king of Congo, who dreading the vicinity of those barbarians, ordered a body of Portuguese to his assistance, who, defeating both the rebels and the Giagas, obtained great favour with the king; but the partiality which his daughter manifested for the Portuguese general, excited his jealousy and alarmed his fears, under the impulse of which, he determined to destroy all the Portuguese; but their general receiving information of this sanguinary resolution, quickly retreated with as many of his countrymen as he could collect, into the kingdom of Congo, from whence he repaired to Lisbon, where by his representations of the ill usage of his subjects, and the advantage that might be derived from revenging it, he obtained from the king a force necessary for invading Angola, returned to that country, defeated Bandi Angola, ravaged the country, and took possession of every spot he chose. These calamities did not sweeten the temper of the tyrant, and his oppressions became so severe, that he was at length assassinated by the principal officers of his own army. To succeed him, was elected his son, Ngola Bandi, who proved like his father not only in his sanguinary disposition, but in his jealousy and hatred of the Portuguese, by whom he was defeated and compelled to take refuge in the deserts of Cacco, where he lived with his kindred wild beasts, it is observed, without losing the least of his fierceness or thirst of blood. By means however of his sister, named Zingha, who professed to be converted to Christianity, after having possessed himself of the kingdom of Metamba, he prevailed on the Portuguese to conclude with him a treaty of alliance; but the unprincipled king, instead of complying with the articles of the treaty, invaded the Portuguese territories, when his army was all cut off, and he himself escaped only to be poisoned, as was supposed, by order of his sister Zingha, who first ascended the throne, and then by a course of deep dissimulation and craft, having got her brother's son, whom he had sent away for security before his death, into her hands, she herself stabbed him. She then, after having made sundry

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alliances, and particularly with the Hollanders, attacked the Portuguese, and her Christian allies made themselves masters of San Paulo de Loanda, and of some of the principal provinces of the kingdom; but all these conquests were soon recovered by the Portuguese; and the successes of queen Zingha against them were still more short-lived. Abandoned by not only her allies, but even her own forces, she abdicated her dominions, yet refused to submit to those humiliating conditions of restoration proposed by the Portuguese. When these selected a young prince descended from the royal family, and named Angola Oarii, whom having obliged to profess Christianity, and be baptized, when they gave him the name of John, they set upon the throne; though they left him little more than the title of king, being a mere vassal of his namesake of Portugal. This first Christian king being soon taken off by an unexpected death, the Portuguese substituted another, to whom at his baptism they gave the name of Philip. His reign proved a long and as happy a one as his dependent situation would permit. In the mean time, queen Zingha exasperated at her losses, through her aversion to the Portuguese, not only renounced their faith, but gave herself up to all the horrid and inhuman rites of the Giagas. She even assumed the office of priestess among them, and becoming the chief of their sect, strove to surpass them all in their most diabolical ceremonies. At the head of these furious and dauntless Ethiopians she made many daring assaults on the fortresses of the Portuguese; but not succeeding in these, she annoyed them by predatory irruptions into their territories; when those, and the Europeans especially, that fell into her hands, experienced the most barbarous treatment, being slaughtered and devoured after a manner the most cruel, and for twenty-eight years did she continue this barbarous warfare. At length she became reconciled to the Portuguese, and having professed sincere penitence, and declared she felt the severest remorse for her apostacy, she again declared herself a Christian, permitted Christianity to be preached in her dominions, and built a church for the celebration of its worship. Some years after which she erected another and more sumptuous one, received the sacrament with the greatest reverence, and from that time appearing to be guided by the

most exemplary piety, encouraged the conversion of her subjects, and at length died, having complied with all the ceremonies of the church of Rome. To succeed her was elected her sister Barbara, who was a zealous Christian, and endowed with many amiable qualities, but in the decline of life, and nearly blind. She was too married to an husband of low extraction, proud and ill-natured, who having before treated her with brutal cruelty, now grasped at the sole government, and endeavoured by the most violent and inhuman means to deprive her of the regal power and dignity. This wretch, whose name was Mona Zingha, through his hatred to Christianity raised a report, that the late queen had been poisoned by some European dishes; and being supported by the whole Giagan sect, interdicted to the capuchins and Europeans the use of their churches, appearance at court and performance of any ecclesiastical functions; yet his purpose of deposing his queen was counteracted; still her reign was short, and on her decease he was able to secure the election; and no sooner was he seated on the throne than he gave proofs of his abhorrence of Christianity, and attachment to the Giagan sect, not only sacrificing several Christians, and ordering one in particular to he burned by a slow fire, but causing others to be tortured to death to force from them some charge against the missionaries. By impious and bloody stratagems added to open persecution, he nearly extirpated Christianity from his dominions. But Don John, a prince of the blood, who had been formerly married to the princess Barbara, and was now the only lawfull heir to the crown, put himself at the head of the Christians, and gave the tyrant a defeat, but not pursuing his victory with vigour, was in his turn defeated by him and slain. But when Mona Zingha on the recovery of his dominions began to resume his butcheries, Francisco, the son of Don John, raised some forces, and slew him in the first engagement; when being himself the only surviving male heir to the crown, he was by the general choice of the nobility placed on the throne; being seated on which he applied himself to the revival of Christianity, having been educated in it. And thus concludes the history of Angola.

A. D. 1662.

A. D. 1666.

Having mentioned above the nation of the Giagas, the history of this part of Africa would remain incomplete were not something

more stated concerning them. They are then a tribe of savages, all of whom seem at first to have wandered in search of plunder; but some of them having thus accumulated wealth, thought it best to settle in some fertile and well cultivated provinces, whence they accustomed themselves to make excursions on every side, carrying the spoil home to their families. Hence they are numerous in the kingdoms of Metamba, Anzico, Fungueno, and other parts, but particularly in the province of Benguela in the kingdom of Angola. They are most ferocious canibals, and offer to the object of their worship, which they term the Mokisso, human sacrifices. Those of them who continue to wander neither sow corn or breed cattle, but abandon each region as soon as they have exhausted it, and sometimes destroy what they cannot carry away. With an unexampled degree of barbarity, though they allow themselves many women, they suffer scarcely any of them to rear their children, but order them to be buried alive as soon as born. To supply the places of these they select the most promising of those of their prisoners, of which the males are trained to arms for the recruit of their hosts, and the females kept for breeding. The rest of the captives are reserved to be eaten in preference to all other flesh. This wretched race are of unascertained descent, but from the name of Imbangolas, which they give themselves, it has been supposed that they may be derived from two nations, infamous all over Africa for their ravages and eating their captives, called the Imbii and the Gallas, and who had long been settled in the part of Abyssinia near the heads of the Nile, whence they made excursions and committed dreadfull ravages.

At the south end of the province of Benguela, from Cabo Negro begins the coast of the Hottentots, and running round the Cape of Good Hope, it on the east side of the African peninsula extends to the northward as far as the river Marquez, which flows into the Bay of Lorenzo. The natives distinguish themselves by the name of Hottentots, but can afford no information concerning their own origin; yet it has been imagined, that they are derived from the ancient Troglodytes. The coast is extremely mountainous, abounding in Capes and Bays. The largest and most commodious of which is Table Bay,

near the mountain of that name, which was given to it on account of its flat top. Throughout this large extent of country there are no considerable kingdoms, the whole being inhabited by different tribes under different chiefs, without any fixed residence; but moving their kraals or hamlets of huts, whenever the pasture fails, or an inhabitant dies. The known nations are said to be the Gunjeman, the Kochaquan, Sussaquan, Odiquan, Chirigriquan, Greater and Less Namaquan, Attaquan, Koopman, Hessaquan, Sonquan, Dunquan, Damaquan, Gauros or Gouriquan, Houteniquan, Chamtover, and Heikom; of these the three most considerable tribes, are the two Namaquan, and the Hessaquan nations; the former of which are able to bring into the field twenty thousand men, and are much respected for their strength, valour, and discretion. These Hottentots travel an hundred and fifty or two hundred leagues from the Cape. The Hessaquan are the richest of the Hottentot nations, having the most numerous and best peopled kraals. Their territory is too, esteemed the most fertile of all, and is covered with great and small cattle. The Hottentots in general are well made, from five to six feet high, but their women are short; their colour is of a dingy olive. They look on thought as labour, and abhorring both, pass three-fourths of their lives in the most stupid idleness; still they are occasionally wonderfully active: they are swift of foot, and very dexterous with arrows, stones, and hassagayes. They are to each other affectionate and liberal, and to strangers very hospitable. In integrity, the expeditious execution of justice, and chastity, they excell most nations in the world: yet with these virtues they practise some very barbarous and unnaturally cruel customs. Filthy as they are in their persons and their dress, they are fond of ornament. Though they eat in the most ravenous manner when humour or appetite induces them, they are by their traditions restrained from the flesh of swine, hares, rabbits, and fish without scales, yet scruple not to eat wild beasts and blood. The chiefs of the nation (and their government is hereditary) engage before instalment to preserve the ancient form and the privileges of the kraals and people. The command of the army and negociations for peace are entrusted to them. They preside in the councils composed of the captains of each kraal, where the question is

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decided by the majority of votes. The captains of the kraals too engage not to alter the laws and customs of their several kraals. Their office is to preserve the peace, administer justice, and command, under the chief, the troops of their own kraals. These kraals consist of low huts like ovens, the area of which is oval, about fourteen feet diameter, ranged in a circle, built with sticks, and covered with mats; though those of the rich have two coverings, the uppermost of which is of skins impenetrable by heat or rain. The light is admitted only by the entrance. The families consist of ten or twelve persons, who sleep in separate holes dug round the huts. As guards to their kraals they have a kind of fighting oxen trained for the purpose, and which are of great use in the conduct of the herds, and in preserving and bringing back stragglers; they know every inhabitant of the kraal, and furiously run at the robbers of cattle. The Hottentots trade in the most friendly and upright manner. Their dearest rate for commodities is a cheapness almost incredible; one pound of tobacco purchases a fat ox; half of a pound a large sheep, and a quarter of a pound a fat lamb. They acknowledge one Almighty God, whom they call God of Gods, the Creatour of heaven and earth; yet they have no institution of worship towards the true God. But they constantly adore and invoke the moon at the full and change as his representative, offering to this supposed inferior deity milk and flesh. They worship too a supposed evil deity, the father of mischief, called Touquan. To inquiries into the origin and meaning of their religious institutions they decline giving any explicit answer; but the most intelligent of them say, that their first parents having grievously offended God, cursed them, and all their posterity. These according to another tradition carefully preserved throughout the different nations, were sent by God himself, and came into their country through a window; that the man's name was Nôh, and the woman's Hingnôh, who taught their decendants to do many things and to keep cattle.* The region inhabited by this singular people

* This testimony to the truth of the Mosaic History is too particular to be passed without remark. The existence of the tradition is reported by a nation not famous for invention, or particularly zealous in the cause of revelation. While the tradition

was first discovered to Europeans by Bartholomew Dias, an admiral in the service of John the second, king of Portugal, in the year fourteen hundred and ninety-three. In their attempts to land at the Cape of Good Hope, the Europeans were then repulsed. In the year sixteen hundred some Dutch merchants touched there, and began to trade for provisions, erecting a fort to protect themselves and their purchases. No further measures were taken towards a settlement until in sixteen hundred and fifty, Van Riebeck, the surgeon of a ship which put in there, remarking the advantages attending the place, laid a proposal before the directors of the East India Company for forming a settlement, when they sent him out with four ships as admiral and governour in chief, with full power to establish what settlement he should think expedient. When arrived at the Cape, the treaty which he proposed to the natives was immediately concluded, and with great solemnity was the possession of the Cape surrendered to the Dutch; and by the arrival of additional settlers from Europe, the settlement soon made a considerable figure. The whole tract of land called Terra de Natal, has been since purchased like the former for toys and other commodities. The fortress called Good Hope, and the Cape town are situated in Table Valley. The latter stands sheltered by three steep and lofty hills, and is large and regularly built, with spacious streets parallel to each other, and one large square. Notwithstanding the fertility of a great part of the country near the Cape, the original proprietors of it are said to have been reduced by the Dutch to a most abject degree of indigence, though represented to be trusty and faithfull in the highest degree, and of a beneficent and lastingly gratefull temper. But as since these accounts were written they have changed masters, it is to be hoped their condition is ameliorated for the honour of the British name. The Terra de Natal, mentioned above as an additional purchase of the Dutch, though included in the bounds of the Hottentot country, as this last itself is in the very extensive region denominated Caffraria,

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itself most manifestly alludes to the curse pronounced on Ham, and has preserved the very name and employment of his father, who on his descent from the ark *began to be an husbandman.*

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is inhabited by the Caffres, a people very different from the Hottentots. It is situated between the twenty-eighth and thirty-third degrees of north latitude, extending to the Indian Sea on the east; but how far westward is yet unascertained. The Caffres traffick with the rovers of the Red Sea, who bring them manufactures of silk for elephant's teeth. The country is very well supplied with water, both from the high land to the north, and from many excellent springs found in the woods. The men of this nation are from five feet ten to six feet high, well proportioned, and in general evince great courage in attacking beasts of prey. Their colour is jet black, their teeth as white as ivory, and their eyes large. The clothing of both sexes is nearly the same, consisting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. They are so fond of dogs, that in exchange for one which pleases them, they will give two bullocks. The women cultivate several kinds of vegetables; and the soil is so fertile, that every thing sown or planted grows with great luxuriance.

The kingdom of Sofala.

From the northern extremity of what is denominated the Hottentot country, on the east side of the peninsula begins the kingdom of Sofala bounded on the east by the Indian Sea, and on the west by Monomotapa, and extending from the twenty-fifth to the seventeenth degree of south latitude. The metropolis from which the kingdom takes its name, was on the arrival of the Portuguese in fifteen hundred an inconsiderable town; but has by them been fortified, and in every respect much improved. It is situated on an island at the mouth of the river Cuama. The Portuguese admiral who first came to an anchor at Sofala, obliged the king, named Jusef, a Mahometan, to grant him leave to build a fortress near the city, which has proved of great importance to the Portuguese; rendering the harbour safe for their ships, and securing their commerce with the Caffres. The Cuama is navigable above one hundred and fifty miles, and washes down great quantities of gold; of which the indolence of the natives prevents them from making all the advantage they might. The compass of the kingdom is computed at seven hundred and fifty leagues. The soil produces some rice, millet, and pasturage; and in the most fertile part the elephants herd in such prodigious numbers, that, according to the report of the inhabitants, they do not kill fewer

on an average than between four and five thousand annually. The other part of the country is encumbered with mountains covered with large woods; the vallies here being watered with a number of rivulets are very fertile and agreeable, and in this quarter the king and court spend the greater part of the year. Such, we are told, is the odoriferous verdure of this coast, that its fragrancy is frequently perceived at a great distance at sea. The natives of Sofala are for the most part black, and those who live near Cape Corientes are esteemed the most courteous of any of the Caffres on the coast from thence to the Cape of Good Hope. Those immediately on the coast being descendants of Arab settlers, speak Arabick, at the same time understanding the language of the country, as well as the Portuguese. For bread they cultivate rice and millet, and eat the flesh of elephants and of large and small cattle, and they have great plenty of fish. The kingdom of Sofala has some very considerable gold mines, the produce of which is said to be remarkably pure. The king keeps a great number of forces in pay; but the Portuguese are so powerfull in the kingdom as to overawe it all. The Mahometan religion is said to be that of the court and great part of the people, but it has been conceived, that the original natives are without any religion at all; the Arabs settled on the coast with a few proselytes being the only Mahometans. When the Portuguese admiral before mentioned had met with so favourable a reception from Jusef, the then king of Sofala, that monarch's son-in-law represented to him the danger of admitting the strangers to raise a fortress in his dominions; but the king removed his fears. Yet the remonstrances of the Arabians settled on the coast alarmed the sovereign, who had an attack made on the Portuguese fort. In this conflict the Portuguese not only repulsed the natives, but pushed their pursuit of them even into the royal palace, where they slew the old king, bravely attempting resistance. After this the Sofalans quietly submitted to the yoke of the Portuguese, which they have not since been able to shake off. Prince Muçaf indeed, Jusef's son-in-law above mentioned, made another unsuccessful attack on the fort, but the Portuguese soon received reinforcements, which enabled them to oblige the Sofalans to elect what kings they pleased, and to keep the kingdom under tribute.

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Contiguous to Sofala on the north lies the kingdom or empire of Monomotapa. It is said to extend, where broadest, upwards of six hundred miles from north to south, and about the same from east to west. The climate is represented as temperate, the air clear and healthy, the soil fertile, and so well watered as to abound with pastures, on which feed vast multitudes of cattle, which the inhabitants prize above their gold. Their ground produces plenty of rice, millet, and other grain, but no wheat; abundance of fruits and sugar canes grow on it without culture. Various kinds of game, as well as wild beasts, swarm in their forests. Their rivers abound too with fish as well as gold; yet the country is but thinly inhabited, some of the inland parts being sandy and barren; they have neither horses, nor any beasts of burthen but elephants. The natives are all black with woolly hair, well shaped, robust, and healthy. They delight in war, but the lower class are generally brought up to diving. The king keeps up constantly a numerous standing army, and obliges his tributaries to have all their sons educated under his eye, and keeps them as hostages of their parents fidelity: but this monarch is not less solicitous to preserve the affections of his subjects than to keep his vassals in order. He exacts from them no taxes, but takes some inconsiderable free gift, when they apply to him for justice or a favour, but this rather as a testimony of respect than as a tribute. Hence they look on themselves as a free people, and entertain for their emperour an affectionate regard. The metropolis of this empire is called Benematapa, and is a spacious city about twenty miles north-west of Sofala. The houses are neat, and more or less high according to the rank of the owners, and are mostly white-washed within and without. But the imperial palace is a spacious fabrick, with a variety of apartments sumptuously ornamented. The floors, ceilings, and beams, are all either gilt or plated with gold curiously wrought, as are the chairs of state, tables, and benches. They are said to use candlesticks of ivory, inlaid with gold. The emperour is served on the knee. When he marches with his army, it is said, that besides his guard he is escorted by two hundred large mastiffs, and that neither he or his soldiers are permitted to wash their face or hands until they have gained a complete victory. The prince, as well as the subjects

of this empire, are generally heathens; yet they acknowledge one Supreme Being, Creatour and Governour of the universe: but they pay singular veneration to a certain virgin, whom they call Al Firoo, which and some other superstitions have raised a suspicion that they have once had an adulterated Christianity preached among them, before the Portuguese made any converts in their country. This, we are told, was done in the year fifteen hundred and sixty, when a Portuguese jesuit baptized the then emperour and his mother; whose example was followed by three hundred courtiers, and quickly after by many of the greatest lords of the empire. But some of the Mahometans exasperating the emperour against the jesuit, he in a twelvemonth's time caused him and fifty converts whom he had baptized the day before to be murdered, and thrown into the next river; yet afterwards repenting of his temerity, he had the Mahometans publickly executed for their calumnies, and permitted the jesuits to preach their religion in his dominions, and his subjects to embrace it. But the fair prospect thus gained of converting the empire, was intercepted by the king of Portugal sending an expedition to revenge the murder of the jesuit. Still though this armament failed of success, the Portuguese, settled in the empire, continued their commerce as before, and afterwards even enlarged their conquests, and increased their wealth and strength. Of the prince then on the throne of Monomotapa, the following romantick tale is told:—The emperour Al Fumigarbachi, it is said, reigned in the beginning of the sixteenth century, but dying without appointing a successor, a long contest for the throne ensued between the most considerable of his sons; two alone at length survived, and agreed to reign alternately for six months together. But the wife of one of them persuaded her husband to sacrifice his brother to his ambition, a nefarious deed which was after some years revenged by an uncle of his; who, after putting him, his wife, and children to death, reigned in his stead. This revolution produced a bloody war between the new sovereign and the father of the late emperour's wife, who was a powerfull prince; but one of the princes who had escaped from the slaughter in which his brothers fell, retiring into a distant kingdom, bought a small territory, and lived there as a private man, married, and had a son named Al Fundi, who very early exhibited

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symptoms of an elevated genius. Undaunted was the courage he by times displayed in the chace of wild beasts; and at length hearing of the war raging in Monomotapa, between him whom he did not then know to be his great uncle and the king of Dafila, he engaged a small number of adventurers to follow him, and purchasing an horse and arms travelled to that kingdom. Here the gallantry of his exploits soon drew on him the eyes of all, and so engaged the confidence of his uncle, that he entrusted him with the command of a small body of troops in the attack of a particular post; when Al Fundi's conduct and courage was such, that the king of Dafila tried all means to bring him over to his interest, but without success. But in six months he drove that enemy out of his uncle's dominions, who gave him as a reward his daughter in marriage, still without at all suspecting his real descent. On this advancement Al Fundi immediately sent for his father, who on his arrival, declared himself the son of the emperour Al Fumigarbachi to the joyfull surprise of his uncle, the court, and the army. The uncle readily resigned the crown to him, and he with the consent of all transferred it to his son, who still wore it in the year fifteen hundred and seventy.—Among the mines of this kingdom are some denominated those of Afur, whence some have supposed to have originated the name of the region to which Solomon's ships sailed for gold, Ophir: but the coast of Monomotapa seems by no means at a sufficient distance from the Red Sea, for the voyage to take up such a time as that which the king of Israel's ships employed in theirs. Of the countries immediately to the north of Monomotapa little is known, except of those on the coast, the first part of which proceeding northward is that of Zanguebar. Here presents itself to us the kingdom of Mosambic, of which the capital is situate on an island very small in itself, and consisting of a barren sand, but the soil of the continent opposite is fat, and fertile in rice, millet, and a variety of roots, pulse, fruits, and plants. The inhabitants breed vast quantities of cattle. The country swarms with wild beasts of various kinds, and particularly elephants, which are very destructive. The woods are filled with game; and the land is rich in mines of gold, which the rivers bring down in great quantities, and which makes a chief article of their commerce. The Portuguese were the only Europeans whom

they admitted into their sea ports; whence they export, besides the articles already mentioned, silver, copper, wax, rice, and other provisions. The natives appear more fierce and brutish the farther they reside inland; they go naked except about the girdle; they are thievish, treacherous, and malicious; except the few Mahometans among them, they appear to have nothing of religion but some superstitious customs: and except that of their canoes and of a kind of mats, they have no manufactures among them. Proceeding to the north from Mosambic we meet with two small kingdoms, the one called Angos, and the other, much the larger of the two, Mongolo; both are represented as fertile, and inhabited by a mixture of Mahometan and idolatrous negroes, but little more is known of them. Beyond these occurs the kingdom of Quiloa, extending about two hundred miles from north to south, and having its capital in an island of the same name, separated by a narrow channel from the continent. The king and his subjects are Mahometans; the metropolis is said to be large, rich, and well built, its houses being of stone. The country though low is pleasant and fertile in corn, fruits, and pasture, with plenty of cattle, poultry, and fish. On the continent stood formerly another city named also Quiloa, which has decreased to an inconsiderable place, though founded by a Persian prince named Ali, who had migrated from Shiraz, and whose descendants continued to reign there with little interruption for more than four centuries, and even until the kingdom became tributary to the Portuguese. It was in the beginning of the sixteenth century that these first landed in the island of Quiloa, and took possession of that town deserted by most of its inhabitants on their approach; it was Don Francesco Almeida, viceroy of India, who commanded this body of his countrymen, and who immediately built a fort near the city. He then raised to the throne a popular leader in lieu of the legal sovereign named Braham; but after the departure of Almeida and some years of dissensions and war with the Portuguese and the party which they supported, Braham recovered his throne; the Portuguese garrison having been withdrawn, yet the king continuing tributary to Portugal.

Kingdom of Mombaso.

To the north of Quiloa lies a kingdom once united to it, named Mombaso, the capital of which too stands in an island of the same

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name, and which is represented as fertile and abounding with the necessaries of life. The houses of the city, like those of Quiloa, are built of stone. Great is the variety of its inhabitants; these are said to be more affable and civil to strangers than any on this coast. Far the greater part are either pagans or Mahometans; but in the inland parts of this kingdom are settled the Imbis, who seem to be of the same race with the Giagas already mentioned, as they are equally ferocious, and like them canibals, feeding on the flesh of their captives, and even of their own kindred, dispatching those that are sick in order to fit them for the shambles. Their drink is chiefly human blood, and their drinking vessels are made of human skulls. The city of Mombaso was in fifteen hundred and five taken, plundered, and nearly destroyed by the Portuguese Almeida, and afterwards given to the king of Melinda, who was become tributary to the king of Portugal; while its own monarch is supposed to have retreated to his continental dominions, and put himself under the protection of the emperour of Monæmugi.

The kingdom of Melinda.

Immediately to the north of Mombaso is situated the kingdom of Melinda; which for the most part is fertile, producing the necessaries of life, with great variety of fruit trees; but wheat and rice the inhabitants are obliged to import; and those who cannot purchase these, substitute potatoes for them. They have great plenty of venison, game, beeves, sheep and poultry. The city of Melinda stands in a beautifull plain. The houses are built of squared stone generally stately, and some magnificent, and all richly furnished. For here is a great trade in gold, copper, quicksilver, ivory, wax, and drugs. The inhabitants consist of people of all complexions. The Melindans are said to be very courteous and obliging, free from fraud and flattery, and live very friendly with the Portuguese. In religion like the other nations of this coast, they are partly Mahometans and partly idolaters. The king is so venerated, that when he goes out, his chair is carried by four of the greatest nobles, and incense is burned before him by a great number of ladies, who welcome him with musick and songs in his praise. The sovereigns of this country are remarkable for their application to publick business, and for their strict and impartial administration of justice.

The Portuguese came here under Vasco de Gama, and met with a peculiarly welcome reception, because the king was then at war with Mombaso, and wished for the assistance of the Portuguese. About two hundred leagues to the north of the city of Melinda, lies that of Brava, the capital of a republick said to have been founded by seven Arabian brethren, from whose descendants its twelve magistrates are still chosen. The city is large and well peopled, the houses well built, and the town strongly fortified, and deemed one of the greatest marts on this coast. The people are chiefly Mahometans, but under a small tribute to the king of Portugal, whose admiral, Tristran de Cunha, once took and nearly destroyed the city. This republick lies on the southern verge of the kingdom of Magodoxo, which derives its name from its capital, situated at the mouth of a river of the same name. This city is a place of great commerce and vast resort, and is chiefly inhabited by Mahometans. The people are robust and warlike. The only remarkable piece of history preserved respecting this city, is the attempt made on it by the Portuguese admiral just mentioned; but who finding the people prepared for resistance, and that they had torn to pieces the messenger which he sent to open a negociation with them, desisted from attacking them.

The kingdom of Adel.

On the north of the river Magadoxo commences the kingdom of Adel. Its extent from east to west is supposed to be about one hundred and sixty leagues, and its least breadth from north to south, about seventy-two. The city of Zeila, from which the kingdom is sometimes denominated, is situated in a spacious bay just without the straits of Babel Mandel. The houses are of stone, and the streets wide and regular. The city is populous, and carries on a considerable commerce. The Adelites are stout and warlike, and are perpetually at war with the Abyssinians, with whom, being themselves staunch Mahometans, they are at variance on account of religion, and into whose provinces they neglect no opportunities of making incursions for the sake of plunder. This kingdom was founded by one of the princes of the imperial family of Abyssinia, who escaped out of the rocky prison to which those princes were confined, and took refuge in the province of Adel, putting himself under the protection of the king of Zeila, who, on his turning Mahometan, gave him his only daughter in

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marriage. By his assistance the prince made himself master of Adel, and on his death succeeding him in Zeila, he made of both one kingdom. Having apostatized from Christianity he became a bitter enemy to all the professors of it. The Portuguese having landed at his old capital of Zeila, he narrowly escaped being taken by them, and their plundering the city did not lessen his aversion to the Christians. This monarch, whose name was Salatru, had a successor named Granhe, whose hatred to the Christians in general, and especially to the Portuguese, was equally great. With a body of these, which, landing under Christopher de Gama, fought their way through his territories to those of the emperour of Abyssinia, he had several engagements; in one of which, by the temerity of their commander, the Portuguese were defeated, and De Gama was taken and beheaded by the enemy, and in a subsequent battle Granhe himself fell. His successor met with the same fate, in the first battle after his accession. A breach afterwards taking place between the Abyssinians and the Portuguese, the latter have been deprived of all communication with the region under consideration; but the kings of Adel have by the Ottomans been stripped of their most considerable maritime towns on the Red Sea, and have now no port left but that of Zeila.

The empire of Monæmugi.

Having now traced the eastern coast of Africa up to the borders of Abyssinia, the reader's attention must be called to a large empire which lies on the west of all the states which have lately been noticed, from Sofala inclusive. It is that of Monæmugi, which is said to extend as far north as Abyssinia, and westward to the frontiers of Congo and Angola. In this extensive tract are said to be many rich gold, silver, and copper mines, the numerous elephants in it too produce a vast quantity of ivory; with all which articles of commerce a trade is pursued with the maritime kingdoms adjoining. Of the natives of Monæmugi, their religion, if indeed they have any, and their laws and customs, little or nothing is known. The Arabs of Zanguebar, themselves Mahometans, call them Caffres, that is men of no religion; and the frontiers of the empire are inhabited by the barbarous people already spoken of under the name of Giagas. These savages the emperour of Monæmugi has engaged in his interest, and employs in his wars. No considerable towns are

mentioned in this empire, only a kind of villages along the river Cuama, where at particular times fairs are kept. The greatest part of the empire is very mountainous, and one ridge is supposed to be that denominated by the ancients the Mountains of the Moon. This empire is represented as divided into five kingdoms or provinces, by name, the Maracates, the Mossagueres, the kingdom of the Bengas, of Masty, and of Marair. Every thing else relating to this country seems to have been purposely concealed by the negroes who traffick thither, from the Europeans, for fear of discovering any thing which might tempt them to penetrate further into those parts.

The country of Ajan or Axan.

On the east side of the bay on which the city of Zeila stands begins the country of Ajan or Axan, occupying the sea coast from thence to the cape Guardafuy, and there turning southward quite to the equator. All the eastern coast of this country is affirmed to be a mere sandy desert, but the northern is a fertile country, producing great plenty of all sorts of provisions, and an excellent breed of horses. The inhabitants are a mixture of Arabs and negroes. All of whom, and especially those who live nearest the trading coasts, are arrant thieves.

The kingdom of Dancali.

Contiguous to the kingdom of Adel on the west, lies that of Dancali, the sovereign of which is a Mahometan, yet in strict alliance with, or tributary to the Abyssinian emperour. The country abounds in mines of salt, in which article a great trade is carried on. Its chief sea port is Balyur; besides which it has some considerable towns; but the country is dry and barren. The petty kingdom of Balu, which joins that of Dancali, and was once subject to Abyssinia, has neither city or town, only some villages scattered through an uncultivated territory inhabited by the wild plundering Gallas; but those who live near the sea have become Mahometans, and subsist more by trade than plunder. Their prince has plenty of gold and silver, and abundance of fine horses.

History of Abyssinia.

The empire of Abyssinia is at present bounded on the north by the kingdom of Nubia or Sennaar; on the east, by the Red Sea and the coasts of Abex or Abash, which have been dismembered from it, and made a province of the Turkish empire; and lower southward by the kingdoms of Dongali and Dowaro, and part of the country of the

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Gallas; on the south by lower Ethiopia; and on the west by the river Maley. Though Abyssinia lies between the eighth and seventeenth degrees of north latitude, yet it is represented as for the most part not hotter than the Spanish peninsula, though in some of the vallies the heat is excessive. The sky is serene and clear, the people healthy and of good spirits, and generally long-lived. The soil is various, but where it can be cultivated and well watered, it produces plentifull crops of grain. The trees are in constant verdure, and what scarcity of fruit they suffer under, is owing rather to the negligence of the inhabitants, than to the fault of the soil. They have great variety of medicinal and odoriferous plants, herbs, and roots; and few countries produce greater numbers, or more species of animals, both domestick and wild. Horses, asses, mules, dromedaries, beeves, sheep, and goats, are bred in great numbers. Their oxen grow to an enormous size, and some of their horns, it is said, will hold above ten quarts of liquor. Lions and wild elephants are both numerous and large. The birds here are of many kinds, while some are remarkable for their beauty and their use; the country too is blessed with plenty of fish. Abyssinia is inhabited by Christians, Jews, Heathens, and Mahometans. The Jews have been settled there from time immemorial, and many of those ancient Jews have embraced Christianity. The Mahometans, it is computed, amount to a third of all the inhabitants of the empire. The Gentiles, who inhabit several considerable parts of the country, are chiefly the Gallas, some tribes of whom the emperour permitted to settle in his dominions, that he might employ them against those of the same nation, who have seized on so large a portion of his empire, and the Agaus, who from the strength of some of the country, have been able to maintain themselves against all the imperial forces; though other tribes are dispersed in various provinces. Among these several nations there is a variety of languages. The Jews speak a corrupt Hebrew, the Moors Arabick not more pure. Every province and almost district has its own dialect. At court that of the kingdom of Amhara is used, while that of the kingdom of Tigre is the nearest to the old Ethiopick, which is still used in all their learned and religious writings, as well as in the imperial letters patent, and all their

records. As for arts, sciences, and what is called polite literature, we are told that we may look for them among the Caffres with as high expectations as among either the clergy or laity of Abyssinia; yet both have had a good character given of them. As to person they are generally well made, tall, with large black and sparkling eyes, well-proportioned features, rather high noses, lips thin, and teeth like ivory. In their disposition they are represented as sober and temperate, and naturally inclined to virtue and piety, averse to all kind of cruelty, and only apparently inhospitable through the misbehaviour which they have experienced in the Portuguese. They are great frequenters of divine worship, devotees to their numerous saints, and strict observers of their fasts and long lents. The women perform some of the most laborious of the domestick offices; and those of inferior rank are generally very attentive and faithfull to their husbands; but princesses of the royal blood deny themselves no gallantries. In their food the Abyssinians are coarse and nasty. Their greatest regale, we are told, is a piece of raw beef brought in reeking warm from the beast. If they invite company to eat with them, the whole quarter is served up at once. The government of this once very extensive and opulent empire, was, by the records of it, from its foundation monarchical and despotick. Written laws, it is asserted, they never had, the will of the emperour determining every thing. This sovereign is addressed as king of kings, and bears in his arms the lion of the tribe of Judah, holding a cross. His subjects approach him with marks of submission little short of adoration. As these monarchs affect to think themselves descended from Solomon, king of Israel, their subjects pretend to have received the Jewish rites through the son whom they say their queen had by that prince. To Christianity they affirm that their nation was converted by the eunuch of queen Candace; but whatever converts that primitive Christian might have made among his countrymen, it may be doubted whether Christianity flourished in that empire until the fourth century, when Athanasius ordained Frumentius, bishop of Axuma, and sent him to preach it in Abyssinia, and from that time the patriarchs of Abyssinia have been nominated and consecrated by those of Alexandria. They are by their own clergy stiled abuna or

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our father; but are said to have been for the most part very ignorant as well as negligent in their office. Nay, so little attentive have the patriarchs of Alexandria sometimes been to the qualifications of those they have sent, that some of them have not been in priests orders. Their religious orders are very numerous, and their monasteries stand excessively thick; but they bear no resemblance to the monasteries of other Christian countries; but appear to be the very transcripts of those of the Essenians and Therapeutes, as described by Josephus and Philo. By the observance of circumcision, and that of the Jewish sabbath, the Abyssinians mixt the law with the gospel, yet in general they receive the Catholick faith. As to the history of the country, they reckon from the queen of Sheba to the birth of our Lord, five and twenty monarchs; and from thence to the year three hundred and thirty-one, when Christianity was brought by Frumentius into Abyssinia, thirteen more emperours. Posterior to these three brothers, named Atzsa, Atzfed, and Amay, to prevent discord, divided the day into three parts, and reigned alternately eight hours each, an expedient which it is said fully succeeded. These were succeeded by Arado, Aladoba, and Alamid, in whose reigns great numbers of monks and anchorites came out of Egypt. Alamid was succeeded by Tacena, and he by Caleb, who subdued the Sabean or Homerite kingdom, the sovereign of which was a Jew, and a bitter enemy to the Christians. Caleb flourished in the earlier part of the sixth century: he was succeeded by Gebra Mesket, a wise and peaceable prince, who is said to have made an alliance with the emperour Justinian. His two next successors were Constantine and Frezena, and then came fifteen more, all of the line of Solomon, the last of whom was named Del Noad; who with all the reigning family but one, was, about the year nine hundred and sixty, destroyed by a most flagitious woman, named Tredda Gabez, in order to raise a son of her own, by the governour of Bugna, to the imperial throne; but the Abyssinians considering him and his posterity as usurpers, have obliterated their names from their history with the exception of three or four of them; and though they filled the throne three hundred and forty years, it is not known either how many or what kind of princes they were. One named Lalibela left

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behind him many monuments of his piety and magnificence; and Degna Michael, Newaja Christos, and Naacu Luabo, still bear a great character among them: but about the year thirteen hundred this usurping family being driven from the throne, Icon Amlac, a descendant of the only one of the old family that escaped, whose posterity had been preserved in the kingdom of Xaoa, recovered it; from which it has continued in the same line. Icon reigned fifteen years; and from him to the emperour Zaara Jaacob, who reigned in the middle of the fifteenth century, are reckoned fifteen more emperours. Zaara Jaacob sent embassadors to pope Eugenius the fourth, and was succeeded by Bœda Mariam, who after reigning ten years A. D. 1465. had for his successor Alexander. This monarch, after a reign of A. D. 1475. sixteen years and a half, left the crown to his son Amda-Izgon, who dying six months after his accession without a son, left it to his uncle A. D. 1491. Naod. Fourteen years and some months was the duration of his reign, when on his decease he was succeeded by Etana Denghel, A. D. 1507. more commonly called Onag-Segued and David. He reigned thirty-three years, and to him it was that the king of Portugal sent the embassy of which the chaplain, Francisco Alvarez, has given so curious a relation. His son and successor was Claudius Segued, A. D. 1540. who being harassed on all sides by the Gallas and Mahometans, would have had the empire torn from him, had he not received assistance from the Portuguese under Christopher de Gama, as already noticed in the history of Adel. Segued however fell in battle A. D. 1559. against the Gallas, and leaving no son was succeeded by a son of his brother, who at his coronation assumed the surname of Adama Segued, and after reigning somewhat more than three years fell by A. D. 1562. the hands of his own soldiers. His successor was his son Malak Segued, whose reign was extended to thirty-three years, and having no son by his wife, he left the crown to a nephew, named A. D. 1595. Zedenghel; who, though a brave and noble prince, brought on a rebellion by betraying a propensity to the church of Rome, and was in that rebellion defeated and slain, after a troublesome reign of nine A. D. 1604. years. His competitor, a natural son of the preceding emperour, and of the name of Jacob, was then placed on the throne, but had not long enjoyed it ere he was attacked by a great-grandson of Etana

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Denghel, of the name of Susneus, and after a contest of two years fell in battle. Susneus having thus gained the crown, would probably have established the pope's authority in his empire, had not his unexpected death put a stop to the progress of the papal missionaries; for his son and successor Basilides proved as adverse to the Romanists as his father had been favourable, and issued a decree against them; for which he was falsely represented as a favourer of the Mahometans. This monarch was, on his death, succeeded by his fourth son, John, who assumed the name of Aclaf Segued, and died after a reign of sixteen years. His son Jawso, who succeeded him, was the prince to whom the French physician, Poncet, was sent by M. Maillet, the French consul at Alexandria. He was afterwards dethroned by his son Taklimanoth, who for his perfidy was massacred by his own troops, and his brother Tefilis placed on the throne; but this prince was dethroned in the third year of his reign by his prime minister, who seized on the crown. The people however permitted him to enjoy the imperial dignity only until they could raise prince David, another son of the emperour Jawso, to the throne; an object which was not accomplished without a shocking slaughter of both parties. The dissensions among the clergy in this reign produced a dreadfull massacre, which ended in the death of the king, who was succeeded by his brother Bacuffa; and he by his son, Jawso the second. The reign of this last prince was disturbed by frequent seditions and rebellions, in one of which Gondar, the capital, was set on fire and almost destroyed. This monarch died, not without suspicion of poison; and was succeeded by his son Joas, in whose reign much disturbance arose from the contentions of two powerfull factions; but though he was at last assassinated, it was not until after the period assigned for the close of this abridgment.

A. D. 1607.
A. D. 1632.
A. D. 1664.
A. D. 1680.
A. D. 1706.
A. D. 1709.
A. D. 1714.
A. D. 1719.
A. D. 1729.
A. D. 1753.

The History of the African Islands.

Beginning the review of the African islands on the east side of the continent the first worthy of notice is Socotora, lying to the north east of Cape Guardafui. It is said to be in length twenty-five leagues, and nineteen in breadth. It has two secure bays, called those of Benin and Cora. The island is fruitfull and populous under the government of a prince. Most of the inhabitants are Mahometans of Arabian origin, who trade to Goa in aloes, frankincense, ambergrise, dragon's

blood, rice, dates, and coral. The climate is said to be exceedingly hot, the rainy season seldom exceeding two or three weeks, but the deficiency of rain is remedied by very heavy dews, which thoroughly moisten the earth; there are too some rivers whose springs are never affected by the driest seasons. The natives of the interior rigidly adhere to their own customs, deeming it an heinous crime to mingle blood with foreigners; they are more fair than the Indians, and of handsome shape, but deceitfull, lazy, and cowardly, attending only to husbandry and pasture, and even the works of these are chiefly carried on by the women; while the inhabitants of the coast make use of all the benefits of their situation, but are mean in stature, and hideous in feature, yet hardy, healthy, and strong extremely. As the Socotrans have a custom of giving away their own children the moment they are born, though they refuse not to accept those of others, so they commonly bury their sick before they have breathed their last. Their chief magistrates next to the prince or sultan, are annual, but entrusted with most absolute power; no appeal from their sentences being allowed, nor any reversal of them. In regard to religion, strange is the mixture they have; they seem to possess remnants both of Christianity and Judaism, or rather of corrupted Arabian worship, as they have altars and crosses, and observe a lent; while they rigidly enforce circumcision, and at the same time render worship to the moon, which they esteem the creative principle of all things. Though the Socotrans are islanders, they are ignorant of navigation, and have no other vessels than flat bottomed fishing boats. Between Socotora and Guardafui stands an island called Abdal Kurin, inhabited chiefly by Arabs, whose manners have nothing particular. The next are a cluster of small islands, called either the two or the seven sisters, between Socotora and Abdal Kurin; besides Sarbo, Shama, Dallaka, and Massua, on the Abyssinian coast: all inhabited, well watered, stocked with cattle, and covered with grain, grass, and fruit trees. We next come to the islands situate round Madagascar, and first to the island of St. Mary, called by the inhabitants the Isle of Abraham, lying in sixteen and seventeen degrees of south latitude, and about two leagues from the Madagascar shore; its length is about eighteen leagues, and its breadth nearly three; and it is surrounded with

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rocks passable by canoes at high tide. On every part of the coast white coral, and great variety of the most beautifull shells are found; the whole island is well watered by rivers, or brooks, which give fertility to the soil and beauty to the scene, enriched on every side by plantations of rice, millet, yams, fruit, and all kinds of vegetables; of which two crops are produced yearly. Large sugar canes grow spontaneously, and the tobacco plant of the island is equal to that of America. Great is the quantity of rain which falls here. The cattle are fat and good, and permitted to roam at large; which, it is said, they do without injuring the plantations. Since the French settled in it the country has increased in population; there are ten or twelve villages, and at least seven hundred natives of the sons of Abraham. The islanders employ themselves in cultivating rice, yams, and all kinds of pulse; though they live on good terms with the Christians, they will make no alliance with them. The Isle of Bourbon, which, ere the French took possession of it, was called St. Apollonion, stands east of Madagascar in twenty-one degrees, thirty minutes, south latitude, about three hundred and seventy miles from that island; it is in form oval, and about forty-six miles in circuit: no colony was established here until sixteen hundred and seventy-two. On the southern extremity of the island is a volcano. The climate, though intensely hot, is rendered wholesome by the alternation of the land and sea breezes; nor is any country more happily watered. This island abounds in fruit, grass, and cattle, though almost a desert before the French came there; it yields excellent tobacco of their introduction; and aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and several kinds of wood and fruit trees, grow spontaneously; the rivers are well stocked with fish, and the coasts with land and sea tortoises; the woods are filled with birds equally beautifull to the eye, and agreeable to the palate. About forty leagues east of Bourbon, bearing a little to the north, stands the island of Mauritius, so named by the Dutch, who touched there in fifteen hundred and ninety-eight, after the prince of Orange; but which name the French have since changed into that of the Isle of France: it is in form like that of Bourbon, and in circumference about one hundred and fifty leagues, and has a fine and secure harbour; the climate is extremely healthy and pleasant; the island is filled

with mountains covered with ebony and other woods of value, and watered with rivers stored with fish. When the Dutch discovered it, it was uninhabited; neither had it any cattle but deer and goats, though it now abounds with beeves and sheep: the woods shelter great numbers of birds. The Dutch abandoned this island after they became possessed of the Cape of Good Hope, and in seventeen hundred and twenty the French took possession of it. About twenty leagues to the east of this island lies another called Diego Roderiguez; all that voyagers relate of it is, that it is inhabited. There are in the seas around Madagascar a variety of other small islands, which, as yielding no materials for history, may be passed without further notice. The island of Madagascar itself, ere the discovery of New Holland, supposed to be the largest in the world, was discovered by Laurence Almeida in fifteen hundred and six. It extends from twelve to twenty-six degrees of south latitude, is in length one thousand and is said to be in circumference considerably above two thousand miles, and lies four and forty leagues from the coast of Mozambique: the whole coast is divided by rivers; and there are many bays and gulfs abounding in good roads and harbours: great quantities of iron are found throughout the island; but it is asserted, that there is neither silver, copper, lead, or tin mines; but there are some of gold. The streams are rich in various sorts of precious stones, and numerous are the mineral springs; crocodiles breed in all the rivers. Madagascar is divided into twenty-eight provinces: in that named Anossi are both white and negro inhabitants, the former of which came and settled in it above two hundred years ago, and form three classes; while the latter are divided into four. The country was under the dominion of the French and chiefs which resided near that coast, and before the French took possession of it, had been governed by a prince whom they honoured not only as a king, but as a God: his name was Andian Ramach. In the year sixteen hundred and forty-two captain Rivault obtained from cardinal Richlieu an exclusive privilege of sending ships and forces to Madagascar and the neighbouring islands, in order to establish a colony; and he erected a French East India Company, which that same year sent captain Coquet with two governours, named Pronis, and Fouquenberg, and

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twelve Frenchmen to land in Madagascar, and wait the arrival of another ship from France. These governours at length stopt in the port of St. Lucia, and in the following April, captain Giles Resimont brought in the ship St. Lawrence seventy more men for Pronis, who himself fell sick, from the bad air of the place, and lost by it one-third of his men. Afterwards, however, he became more successfull, reduced the whole province, changed the place of his residence; and having received a reinforcement of two hundred men, built a fort under the name of Fort Dauphin, and was victorious in a war with the natives, excited by this step. Many buildings were erected and large inclosures made behind this fort; which itself was in sixteen hundred and fifty-six accidentally burnt, and quickly rebuilt. Here a governour continued by the king's appointment to reside with a strong garrison; which maintained a war with the neighbouring people, whose mountains they over-ran, ransacked their houses, and carried off their cattle. This conduct and their selling to the Dutch a number of natives for slaves, counteracted all the benefit which the artfull deportment of the French had done them; and so jealous and enraged against them at length became the natives, that they formed a conspiracy to cut off all the Europeans in one day; which they soon after effected. The native inhabitants of different provinces differ too in their manners. In that of Vohitsbang dwell a people quarrelsome and dishonest, and implacable, who have no religion, or divine worship; but by an ancient custom, refrain from hog's flesh, and are circumcised. In the province of Galemboule are a tribe called Zafe Ibrahims, or the offspring of Abraham, who observe the sabbath, call the Mahometans Caffres; acknowledge Noah, Abraham, Moses, and David, and practise circumcision. They are extremely superstitious, and have the horrid custom of exposing as accursed all children born on Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Fridays. The soil of this island varies; several sorts of gum grow in it, and it produces great plenty of plants, both eatable and medicinal: here is rice of different kinds, yams, and great quantities of barley very long in its straw; bananas, ananas, musk, and water-melons, gourds, and pumpkins, and other fruits; great plenty of sugar canes, white pepper, ginger, cocoa nuts, and saffron; tobacco and hemp, with a

vast variety of woods. Madagascar abounds with different kinds of quadrupeds, insects, birds, and fish. Here is said to be an extraordinary species of horned cattle, having their horns loose, hanging down, and fastened only to the skin of their heads. In the province of Machicore run herds of buffaloes; there are great numbers of goats, of which the females kid three times in a year, and bring four at each time; in the woods are great numbers of wild boars, and there is a species of porcupine, the flesh of which is esteemed by the natives; monkies and baboons too of various kinds are here found; but there is no breed of elephants, tygers, lions, or horses in this island: the insects are of several kinds, and so are the serpents; there is too a variety of water and other fowls. The inhabitants of most of the provinces are whites or negroes; in many places are said to be found really wild men, called by the natives ompizees, who let their hair and beards grow, go nearly naked, inhabit, with their families, thick and unfrequented woods, avoid meeting the other natives, and live on fish, wild beasts, fruit, roots, honey, and locusts.* These islanders are esteemed the most deceitfull and false people in the world. The Manghabeians are less cruel and treacherous, follow other laws and customs, and glory in being descended from Abraham. Though the people in general apply diligently to agriculture, their labour extends only to the necessaries of life; and of commerce they have little knowledge, yet are in many particulars ingenious artificers. Their houses have only one floor, their sides are of two inch plank, and their roofs sloping, and covered with the leaves of rates and bamboos; polygamy is practised throughout the island; neither are the women more continent than the men; the custom of exposing

* It is said, that one island on the coast of Madagascar was formerly inhabited by a people who were constantly in hostility with all their neighbours, ate their enemies and all travellers, always reserving the hands for the king's table. They fed great numbers of cows only for their milk; never killed bulls, goats, rams, or cocks, but buried them when dead. They devoured their dogs with great appetite when unfit for hunting, but cultivated their lands as the people of Madagascar. These people were beardless, small eyed, with broad foreheads, pointed teeth, flat nosed, thick lipped, with short curled hair, reddish skin, large bellies, and thin legs, but nimble and good runners, and preyed on each other till reduced to a small number, who were entirely destroyed by their neighbouring enemies.

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their children appears not only the most execrable superstition of the natives, but the true reason why the island is so thin of inhabitants. The same language, with different modes of pronunciation, is spoken throughout Madagascar, and is chiefly Arabick; the characters of which were introduced three centuries ago by some Arabs sent by the caliph of Mecca. The whole of the religion of those who observe circumcision consists of gross and idolatrous superstition, without churches or prayers; they believe in the creation, a fall, and a deluge, and with regard to the person of the Saviour, hold a doctrine allied to that of the docetœ. It had been asserted, that this island was divided into six kingdoms, in continual war between themselves; but one traveller says, that in his time, it was governed by four sovereigns; and by later accounts it is said to be ascertained, that each province has a particular lord called Dian, who appoints a governour over every village of his dominions.

Comorro Islands.

Between the north end of Madagascar and the coast of Zanguebar lie the islands of Comorro or Comora, in from ten to fifteen degrees of south latitude. The number of them is variously stated, but four are principally spoken of; Malalia, Angazya, Johanna, or Juanny, and Majoke. All these islands, and especially Malalia, abound in horned cattle, sheep, swine, and fowls, of different kinds, as well as in oranges, citrons, cocoa-nuts, bananas, betel, sugar-canes, rice, and honey. The kernel of the cocoa-nut boiled or broiled, and spread over with honey, is in these islands chiefly used for bread. The beverage is palm wine, or the fermented juice of the sugar-cane, or the milk of the cocoa-nut. The houses are of stone elegantly plaistered. Many of the natives read and write Arabic with great facility. That of Johanna is the best known to Europeans of these islands; it is thirty miles long, and fifteen broad; the negroes are in religion Mahometans, and express a particular friendship for the English: their government is a pure monarchy, females not being excluded from the throne. The people in general are simple, well-meaning, and inoffensive, very hospitable, totally ignorant of war, and void of ambition; their kings assume no state, but converse familiarly with both foreigners and their own subjects without forfeiting the respect of their inferiors. To express their detestation of the devil,

these islanders frequently burn him in effigy. Many are the islands scattered to the east of Madagascar from the fifth to the fortieth degree of south latitude, but which being chiefly uninhabited, and yielding not materials for history, the reader may now be led round the Cape of Good Hope to that of St. Helena, lying in the sixteenth degree of south latitude, and four hundred leagues to the west of the African coast. This island is stated to be in circumference more than twenty miles, and formed of one vast rock, as steep on every side as a church-steeple, and resembling a castle in the midst of the ocean; with only one landing place, which is on the east side of the island, and even here the landing is difficult from the surf. A small creek in another place, where two or three men might land at a time, has been rendered inaccessible. The fort built for the security of St. Helena was not erected until after the period at which this history closes, and the whole history of the island may be related in a few words. It was discovered by the Portuguese in the year fifteen hundred and two, who stored it with swine, goats, and poultry; but it does not appear that they ever planted a colony in it: for the English East India Company took possession of it in sixteen hundred, and held it without interruption until the Dutch surprised it in sixteen hundred and seventy-three; but the English recovered it in the space of a year, and have retained it ever since. The climate of the island is very fine, the air perfectly clear and healthy; the soil produces grass, herbs, roots, and fruit trees; herds of cattle graze on it; the animals with which it was stocked have abundantly increased, and the sea affords a good supply of fish. The inhabitants, who are chiefly of English descent, are represented as an honest, inoffensive, and hospitable people, contented with their situation, though it should seem that somewhat more attention and liberality on the part of the directors of the Company would greatly ameliorate it. Next comes the island of Ascension, so called from the festival on which the Portuguese discovered it, in the year fifteen hundred and eight. It is about eight leagues in circumference, uninhabited and barren, without water in general; yet some goats subsist on it, and some spots on it are said to be fit for tillage; it has an excellent harbour, and vast quantities of sea-fowl, fish, and turtle are found there.

About one hundred leagues north-east of this island lies that of St. Matthew, about eight leagues round too, and finely watered by a clear rivulet, which branches out into a number of streams. As the Portuguese kept possession of it for some time, it probably has been cultivated. Proceeding from St. Matthew towards the coast of Africa, the first of the islands we meet with near the coast, is that of Annobon, so named by some Portuguese, who discovered it on a New year's day. As to its size travellers differ, one stating it to be five or six French leagues in circumference, and another ten; it has two high mountains, and several vallies fertile in Turkey corn, rice, millet, potatoes, yams, bananas, pine-apples, citrons, and a variety of other fruits. Here too is great plenty of beeves, swine, sheep, goats and poultry, with abundance of fish; and the cotton of the island is deemed equal to the best of India. Except the governour, who is a Portuguese, and a few European servants about him, the inhabitants are natives, bigotted in their attachment to the doctrines of Rome. The climate is wholesome, and the air clear and serene for the greater part of the year. Every part of the island is well-watered. There is stated to be a town of above two hundred houses. Between this and St. Thomas lies a small island, called by the Portuguese, Ilha Rolles; and still nearer to St. Thomas lies Goat Island: both these are mountainous, and covered with wild lemon trees. The island of St. Thomas itself is the principal possession of the Portuguese on this coast. Directly over it passes the equinoctial line: it lies in the gulf of Benin, is of a circular form, and of a diameter variously reported from twelve to twenty leagues. The climate is hot, moist, and unwholesome; though many of the African natives prove long-lived. The soil of this island is clayey, viscous, and frequently coarse and mixed with chalk; very fertile, and producing sugar-canes of a prodigious height, but the sugar is not capable of being highly refined. Wheat, though growing rapidly, will not repay the expence of cultivation; but millet and rice flourish. Vines of the richest kind, and fruits of every denomination of the warm climates, are easily reared. This island has a sufficiency of fresh rivers, and smaller streams; it abounds with quadrupeds tame and wild, has abundance of birds and also of fish. The capital,

which stands on the north side of the island, is called Pavaoasan, and contains about five hundred houses. The inhabitants consist of the descendants of those Portuguese who were banished hither at its first discovery, and negroes. The trade of the island consists in sugar, and the cotton and stuffs manufactured in the island. Nearly all the inhabitants are Papists, and the ecclesiastical government is in the hands of the bishop. St. Thomas was taken in the year sixteen hundred and forty-one by the Dutch; but an epidemick distemper soon obliged them to evacuate it. At a short distance to the north-west of this island lies that of Caracombo, producing a variety of fruits and plants unknown in Europe; but inhabited by a race who have little more of humanity than their voices and erect posture. About forty miles from St. Thomas, is another called Princes Island, very healthy, almost covered with the fruit trees of the tropical climates, and a particular species of tree, the trunk of which, it is reported, frequently measures twenty-four yards in girth. Here are large and small cattle. The inhabitants consist of some Portuguese, and a much larger proportion of Mulattoes, who have a chief of their own, yet acknowledging the sovereignty of the king of Portugal. The fifth, and most northward of the five islands in the gulf of Benin, is that of Fernando Poo; which lies in nine degrees, thirty minutes north latitude, and about four leagues and a half from the continent. Though larger than St. Thomas it is greatly its inferior in fertility. The natives are fierce and savage, governed by seven different princes, perpetually engaged in wars with each other. Proceeding from the right of Benin along the coast of Africa to the north-west, we arrive off the Cape de Verd, almost opposite to which lie the islands which have their name from it; of which ten principal ones are enumerated, being those of Sal, Buenavista, Mayo, Saint Jago, Fogo, Bracca, Sant Nicholas, Sant Lucia, Sant Vincent, Sant Antonio. The honour of the first discovery of them is disputed, but, it is said, to have taken place in the earlier part of the fifteenth century. They are well peopled; for the climate, though in some very unhealthy, is in general wholesome, and the air pure and serene, and they were first colonized by criminals from Portugal. The island of Mayo, which lies in the fifteenth degree of north

latitude, and the twenty-second of west longitude from London, is [illegible] more than seven leagues in circumference, with a dry soil, and [illegible] one spring nearly in the centre, which feeds a small stream. [illegible] fruits are few, and not good of their kinds; their most c[illegible] quadruped is the goat. Among the birds the flamingo is [illegible] eminent. The surrounding sea produces a variety of fish, and [illegible] staple commodity of the island is salt, obtained from sea water [illegible] evaporation. There are in Mayo three small towns; the chief of these is named Pinose, and has two churches, each attended by its proper priest. The people are stout, robust, and well-limbed, and though they appear to have contracted a great deal of the appearance of the negro, good-natured and civil. Buenavista, which lies north of Mayo, though in the same degree of latitude, is reckoned nearly twenty leagues in circumference, and its interior is chiefly mountainous. In the seventeenth degree of north latitude, and in the twenty-second of west longitude, is the isle of Sal, about nine leagues long, but not above half a league broad, a desert island full of salt ponds. About seventeen leagues to the west of which, lies that of St. Nicholas; in length seven or eight leagues, and in some places about three broad. The island of St. Vincent, which lies about forty-three leagues from that of Sal, a little to the north of the west, is about five leagues in length, and has a bay deemed the safest harbour in all these islands; and good fresh water is also to be found in it. St. Lucia is high and mountainous, about nine leagues long, it has plenty of wood and fresh water, and abounds with goats, sea and land fowl, and tortoises. The most northern of this cluster is St. Anthony, which is filled with mountains, and among them is one of extraordinary height, having its summit constantly covered with snow. The inhabitants are chiefly negroes. This island produces a variety of fruits, and its melons in particular are highly esteemed, as likewise its potatoes. The isle of Fogo has its name from a volcano; it is inhabited, but vines are the only produce noticed. That of Brava is to the south-west of Fogo, and about four leagues in circuit. There is on it an hamlet inhabited by a few wretched negroes; it produces millet, rice, roots, and variety of fruits, and has a number of goats; which the inhabitants are not permitted

to sell or kill without the consent of the governour of St. Jago; the most considerable of the Cape de Verd islands. This, which is about twelve leagues long, is better cultivated and more fruitfull than any of the others. On the east side is the town of Praya with a good port; but the town of St. Jago is the capital of the island and of all the cluster, the residence of both the Portuguese governour and the bishop being fixed there. The town consists of about three hundred houses of rough stone. The trade of the island consists in sugar and striped cotton cloth; for abundance of cotton is produced in it. Among the other tropical fruits which St. Jago produces, are the custard-apple and the papa.* The island supports plenty of cattle, and fowls wild and tame.

The Canary Islands.

The Canary Islands, which fall next in our course to the northward, are situate between twenty-seven degrees ten minutes, and twenty-nine degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and between twelve and fifteen degrees fifty minutes longitude west from London. They are said to amount to twelve, but seven of them only have been thought worthy of description; which are Lancerota, Fuerte Ventura, Gran Canaria, Ferro, Palma, Teneriffe, and Gomara. Whatever knowledge the ancients might have obtained of these islands, the first acquaintance of the moderns with them is enveloped in darkness. They were however inhabited, and the inhabitants

* The first of these is a fruit in size and colour resembling the pomegranate, but the rind softer; within which is a soft white pulp, sweet and very pleasant, much like a custard in both colour and taste. It has in the middle a few black kernels, but no core, the whole inside besides consisting of pulp. The tree is of the size of a quince tree, with long, slender, and thick-set branches spreading all round: at the extremity of these grows the fruit, on a stalk ten inches long, slender and tough, hanging down after a very handsome manner, with the weight of the fruit. The papa as well as the custard-apple, is found in most of the countries within the tropics; it is of the size of a water-melon, resembling it strongly in shape and colour; but its seeds are like pepper-corns, and hot and pungent to the tongue. When ripe the fruit is soft, sweet, and luscious; and even in its immature state, it is boiled and eaten with beef and pork as a substitute for turnips. The tree on which it grows is about ten or twelve feet high; at bottom about two feet in diameter, and tapering to the top. The leaves grow on a stalk immediately from the trunk of the tree, and amidst them the fruit.

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professed Christianity, ere John, king of Castile, on their having been seen by some mariners, granted the property of them to D[illegible] court, a Frenchman, who conquered Lancerota and Fuerte[illegible] and after his death the other islands were in course of [illegible] subdued; and at length, in a treaty between the kings of [illegible] Portugal, the Canary Islands were acknowledged to bel[illegible] crown of Castile. The soil of these islands is remarkabl[illegible] corn and vines, and numerous fruits, and they are [illegible] stocked with cattle. Their woods are stored with a variety of birds, and in the surrounding seas are shoals of fish. Whence their first inhabitants came does not appear, but the Spaniards have denominated them Guanches, and represent them as a race of gross idolaters, divided into petty principalities, not ferocious, though frequently engaged in hostilities among themselves, and ignorant of the use of iron. Their descendants are described as a robust people, of a tawny colour, with large flat noses; they are of a quick genius, active, brave, and crafty. The most considerable of these islands is Gran Canaria, the residence of both the governour and the bishop; but a description of the whole of them will best be commenced by beginning at one end, whence we may proceed regularly through them. Taking then first the most westward of them, the island of Palma: this is said to be about twenty-six leagues in circumference, and has on it a burning mountain, named Capraria, of which there was an irruption in the year sixteen hundred and seventy-seven. This island has an handsome town of its own name, and exports at least twelve thousand pipes of wine a year. To the south-east of Palma lies the island of Ferro; which is about ten leagues in circuit. It has some towns, and different are the accounts given of the degree of fertility which it enjoys.* The next island eastward is Gomara, twenty leagues in compass, which though formerly barren and

A. D. 1479.

* The supply of water afforded by what has been called the miraculous Tree in this island, appears to be an effect of what men are wont to denominate the common course of nature; yet most admirable is the provision thus made by the All-glorious Author of that course, for the supply of water to an island which without it would be greatly distressed for that element.

inhabited by savages, is well cultivated, and produces abundance of sugar and wine; but the most eminent of the Canaries in point of extent, wealth, and fertility, is Teneriffe, of a triangular form, and divided in the middle by a ridge of mountains, which has been compared to the roof of a church, of which the celebrated Peak forms the steeple. Various accounts have been given of the height of this volcanic mountain, one of which makes it four miles and a half perpendicular. The vertex of it is flat through the extent of an acre of ground; in the centre of which is a volcano, the eruptions of which are frequently accompanied with an earthquake, affecting the whole island. The most alarming eruption took place in seventeen hundred and four, when the earthquakes lasted from the twenty-fourth of December to the twenty-third of February, and several new volcanoes were produced in different parts of the island. The mountain of the Peak is adorned with trees of various kinds, and of an extraordinary height; between which rivulets tumble down the rocks; but the top of the mountain is perfectly barren: than the soil of the arable part of the island nothing can be more rich. The Guanches, from whom this island was conquered, are said to have spoken a language much resembling that of the Moors of Barbary. These natives were for a long time governed by one king, distinguished by the name of Adexe. After a course of years the reigning monarch's children conspired against him, and divided the island into nine portions, each governed by one of the brothers. The people were well made and of a stature even gigantic. The island has three principal towns, St. Christoval de la Laguna, Oratavia, and Santa Cruz; and on the whole, exclusive of the inconveniencies derived from the volcanoes, the globe contains not a spot more desirable for ease and all the felicities of life. About ten leagues distant, and east-south-east of Teneriffe, lies the island of Gran Canaria, about twelve leagues in length, and nearly the same in breadth; here is holden the supreme council of all the Canaries, and a court of inquisition. The capital of the island is called Palma, and is adorned with a magnificent cathedral, and a number of elegant buildings. Though the soil of it be light, the country is as fertile as Teneriffe; every year produces two crops of all kinds of

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vegetables but fruit; and so abundant are the canes, that sugar forms the chief commodity of the island. The island of Fuerta Ventura lies about sixteen leagues north-north-east of the great Canary; it is about fifty long, and in its breadth varying from [illegible] miles to as many leagues. *The island is beautifully diversified with* hills, well-watered, *supplied with a variety of timber, and its soil* generally fertile. *There are three considerable sea-ports*, Lancerota, Tarafato, and Pozzo-negro. *The last of the Canaries which merits* any description is Lancerota; which is about thirteen leagues in length, and in breadth about nine. A ridge of mountains, affording pasture for cattle, divides it into two parts; and the vallies being fruitfull, it abounds in grain, fruits, and horned cattle.

The island of Madeira.

Proceeding northward from the Canaries, at the distance of about five degrees from Teneriffe, lies the island of Madeira; of its extent the accounts vary, but that which gives it one hundred and thirty miles in compass is stated to be the most correct. The climate is more temperate than that of the Canaries, and the soil still more fertile in wine, sugar, and fruits, though less so in corn; yet it is incomparably better watered: the cattle, birds, and plants are nearly similar. The climate is indeed enchanting; for here is a perpetual spring; and in such perfection do flowers and fruits of various kinds spring forth every month in the year, that they are unequalled in every other country. In Madeira, sugar-works were first erected in the west, whence they were translated to America; soon after which the demand for sugar decreasing, the Portuguese converted their cane-plantations into vineyards. The capital of Madeira is named Funchal, and is situated in the south part of the island; it is an extensive town, populous, and decorated with some fine buildings. Of the morals of the inhabitants as to lasciviousness, the most disgusting picture is drawn; and here is said to appear in its completest state, "The form of godliness without the power thereof;" the external worship being that of Rome. Funchal is the residence of the governour, and of a bishop, and of the court of inquisition; besides the metropolis there are in Madeira several other considerable towns; and in the island thirty-six parishes with a church in each. The general manner of the natives is grave and

sober, but haughty and ostentatious. Murder by duelling is here very frequent, and finds much encouragement from the extensive privilege of sanctuary, supported by the papal clergy, who have engrossed nearly all authority in the island, the governour being little better than a cypher. The Portuguese are said to have become acquainted with this island first in fourteen hundred and thirty-one, when a colony was sent thither under Tristan Tessora and Gonzales Zarco.

The Island of Puerto Santo.

Nearly east of Madeira, and about two degrees of longitude from it lies the island of Puerto Santo, so called by the Portuguese for the refuge it afforded their fleet when they first fell in with it in a storm; it was afterwards peopled by them, and has ever since continued in their possession. Though but five leagues in compass, it has some good harbours, and produces corn in abundance: it has also beeves, and wild swine, and an incredible number of rabbits. Its most valuable exports are dragon's blood, honey, wax, and fish; the inhabitants are bigotted papists, under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Madeira.

The Azores or Western Isles.

Although it has been made matter of controversy to what quarter of the world the Azores or Western islands properly belong, since the most eastern of them lies nearer the coast of Africa than the most western to that of America, this seems the properest place for an account of them. They are in number nine, St. Michael, St. Maria, Tercera, Gratiosa, St. George, Pico, Fayal, Flores, and Corvo. With the exception of a part of Fayal only, they are inhabited by Portuguese colonists, under a governour residing in Tercera. They lie between the thirty-sixth and fortieth degrees of north latitude, and between the twenty-third and thirty-fourth degrees of west longitude. These islands enjoy a clear sky and wholesome climate. The first of them in order from the east is St. Michael, about twenty leagues in length, and containing several very populous towns and villages. The commerce of the island in corn, wine, and cattle, is considerable, it abounding in arable and pasture land; but its advantages are counterbalanced by the dread in which the inhabitants constantly live, of destruction from the earthquakes and volcanoes, to which their island is more particularly subject. The chief town of

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St. Michael is Punta del Gada. About twelve leagues to the southward of St. Michael lies the island of Santa Maria; about [illegible] leagues too in compass: it is surrounded with a natural [illegible] of high mountains and steep rocks; and the interior [illegible] populous, and well cultivated; besides the chief town, Santa [illegible] Prainha, the island has two others, and a number of villages. [illegible] next in order is the island of Tercera, from which the whole [illegible] sometimes denominated; it lies about twenty-eight leagues from the other two, and is computed to be from sixteen to twenty-one in circumference: from its natural and artificial strength it has been deemed impregnable. The only tolerable port in the island is Angra, the capital. Tercera is fertile, pleasant, and healthy; the very rocks support good vines, and the land yields large crops of grain, good pasture, and a great variety of fruits: here is some excellent timber, and particularly cedars of a great height and size. The city of Angra, the metropolis of all the Azores, lies on the south side of this island; it is a well built populous town, and an episcopal See: there are besides this, several other towns and large villages in Tercera; the total of the inhabitants however are reckoned at twenty thousand. The most northern of all the Azores is Gratiosa, which was so named from its beauty and fertility; not more than five or six leagues in compass; it produces as much corn, pasture, and fruits, as can be had from a spot so small, and it is well peopled. The fifth island is that of St. George, which is tolerably fertile in all the necessaries of life; and the natives of which carry on a considerable trade in cedar. We next arrive at the island of Pico, so denominated from a very high mountain terminating in a peak; it is about twelve leagues from Tercera. The mountain is a volcano, with many craters frequently emitting its igneous contents. The island is computed to be about fifteen leagues in circumference; the inhabitants live in great plenty and happiness; their cattle, their timber, and their wines are excellent. The seventh of these islands is Fayal, which, like the last has great abundance of wood, and large herds of cattle, besides flocks of birds, and on its coasts shoals of fish. The only town on the island is Orta, and that a place of but little consideration. This island was peopled by Flemings, who being unable to defend it

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against different attacks of the English, under the earls of Cumberland and Essex, a Portuguese garrison was sent, and has been ever since maintained there. The Isle of Flores, which has acquired its name from the flowers with which it is covered, is in compass about seven leagues; it is very fruitfull and populous. About a league from this island lies that of Corvo, so called from its multitude of crows, and abounding in much the same productions as the last.

The History of America.

America, certainly discovered to the inhabitants of the old continent only in the latter part of the fifteenth century, extends from Cape Horn in fifty degrees south latitude, to perhaps the north pole; but its breadth varies much, as the reader may see by inspecting the map. It is more than nine thousand miles in length, and enjoys the various climates of the globe; the two large portions of which it consists are denominated, from their situation, North and South America; the isthmus which connects them being called that of Darien. A variety of islands are scattered on both sides of America; but the most remarkable are situated in a large gulf formed by the coasts of the northern and southern portions, and that of the isthmus of Darien, and are called the West Indies. The mountains and rivers of this quarter of the globe are on a very great scale. In south America, that prodigious chain of the former called the Andes, runs from the southernmost part of the continent for above five thousand miles beyond the isthmus of Darien, and such is their height, that even in the torrid zone their summits are always covered with snow; many of them are volcanoes, and some contain mines of the precious metals. North America has too several lofty and extensive chains, the principal of which are called the Apalachian Mountains. As to the rivers of this new world, South America has three of the largest on the earth; that of the Amazons, that of Plata, and the river Oroonoko. The first arising from a lake near the city of Guanaco in the eleventh degree of south latitude, becomes at length more like a sea than a river, and falls into the ocean under the equinoctial, its course running at least three thousand three hundred miles. The river Plata rises in the province of that name, and after running through a great extent of country, falls into the ocean in such a body, as to render the water fresh for many leagues. The Oroonoko has its

source near Popayan, in Terra Firma, and after a course of seven hundred miles falls into the sea, in nine degrees, thirteen minutes north latitude. North America is watered by innume[illegible] The Mississippi runs a prodigious course from north to [illegible], and receives the waters of Ohio, the Quabache, and other large [illegible], navigable almost to their sources. Near the heads of these [illegible] are five great fresh water lakes communicating with each other, and [illegible] with the ocean by the river St. Lawrence. The eastern side of North America is watered by the rivers Hudson, Delawar, Susquehanna, Patowmack, and several others of great depth, and length, of course. The continent of America is principally divided among three European nations, the Spaniards, the English, and the Portuguese; the settlements of the French and the Dutch are scarcely worth mentioning. By all these the natives, improperly enough termed Indians, have been much encroached on; still they possess large tracts of country in various parts. The West India islands are divided between the Spaniards, the English, and the French, the portion of them which the Dutch or the Danes hold being scarcely worth particularizing. Since it is the purpose of this work to recite only facts, all the reports and suppositions of what had been discovered of America, prior to the first voyage of Columbus may be passed over, as not resting on ground sufficiently secure. It was in August, fourteen hundred and ninety-two, that Christopher Columbus, whose particular history is sufficiently known, after having his proposals for searching after a western continent rejected repeatedly, and at different courts, and obtained by the patronage of queen Isabella a commission of admiral in the service of their catholic majesties, and the appointment of viceroy of all the lands he should discover, set sail from Spain with three small vessels, whose crews together amounted only to one hundred and twenty men; and after a tedious voyage, during which his sailors mutinied, discovered on the twelfth of October Guinaya, one of the Lucayo islands, of which he shamelessly took possession in the name of the king and queen of Spain, a ceremony perhaps which the natives did not understand; for, pleased with the presents made them, they manifested a desire for further intercourse. Columbus, having given this island the name of St.

Salvador, proceeding westward, after touching at several other islands, arrived at Cuba; where understanding that the gold which he saw in possession of the natives was brought from an island to the south-east, he steered to that now called Hispaniola. Here having with some difficulty established an intercourse with the natives, and one of the caziques of the country having ventured aboard his ship, Columbus resolved to leave a colony on the island, and with the consent of one of the caziques, he built a fort, and garrisoned it with thirty-nine Spaniards; and having learned that a great continent to the eastward afforded gold in great abundance, he returned to Spain with specimens of this metal, and several natives of Hispaniola. This island he had found well peopled, by a race whiter, handsomer, and more courteous, than the inhabitants of the other isles; of a middle stature, large boned, and something corpulent. The island was divided into principalities, the sovereigns of which were treated with great respect by their subjects. Their weapons and utensils manifested much ingenuity; neither did their humanity appear less worthy of admiration. The discoveries made by Columbus filled Spain with admiration and joy; and the pope being informed of them, with true Roman presumption, granted a bull confirming the crown of Spain in an exclusive right to the West Indies. The discoverer was again sent out with a larger force and more extensive powers. This voyage in general proved unfortunate, through the licentious, rapacious, and factious disposition of the Spaniards; yet in it were discovered Dominique, Marigalante, Guadaloupe, and all the islands to the south-west of Hispaniola. Columbus, on his arrival at this island, found his colony entirely destroyed through their own misconduct; having settled a new one, and discovered some rich gold ore, he pursued his voyage, and discovered Jamaica. But on his return to Hispaniola, he found the Spaniards whom he had left there at war with the natives; which last however were easily defeated, through their dread of the Spanish horse: in regard to which, they made the same mistake as in the ancient world gave rise to the fable of the Hippocentaur, by imagining that the quadruped and his rider formed but one animal. Columbus, leaving his brother Bartholomew as lieutenant governour of the colony, returned to Spain,

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where he at the court reported the Indians he had met with to be gross idolaters, worshipping the sun as their principal divinity, and making offerings also to a number of images of wood and stone, as inferior and tutelary deities; while the sanctity of their manners kept pace with the purity of their devotion. Columbus being enabled to reach Hispaniola a third time, by his presence put an end to the disturbances in which his brother was involved during his absence, and by this return of tranquillity enabled the Spaniards vigorously to proceed in building a city named St. Domingo, because the foundation of it was laid on a Sunday; after which he proceeded in search of the continent, and on the last of July in the year fourteen hundred and ninety-eight, fell in with an island which he called La Trinidad, near the mouth of the river Oroonoko. Having had some communication with an hospitable and good natured cazique, he sailed eastward, and fell in with land, which he imagined to be an island, but it afterwards proved part of the province of Paria on the continent. But the English claim the honour of having discovered another part of the continent of America prior to this, since John Cabot, a Venetian, having obtained letters patent from Henry the seventh, after discovering Newfoundland in fourteen hundred and ninety-six, continued his course along the coast of America as far as the Gulf of Florida. Columbus where he touched found the country well cultivated and populous, and the inhabitants not only civil but industrious and ingenious. The success of Columbus failed not to excite others to embark in similar pursuits. Some merchants of Seville sent out four vessels under the command of Alonso de Ojeda, who had with him Americus Vesputius, a Florentine, the individual whose fortune it was to give a name to that new discovered world, which ought in justice to have been denominated from Columbus. These adventurers falling in with a different part of the coast from that which their predecessor in discovery had visited, found also a different people, and one not so far advanced in civilization. While the Spaniards were thus pursuing their discoveries, a squadron equipped for the East Indies by Emanuel, king of Portugal, standing farther than usual to the westward to avoid the coast of Guinea, fell in with that of South America, and introduced the Portuguese to

Brazil. While various other voyages were undertaken, Columbus himself met with those ungratefull returns which have fixed on the Spaniards an indelible stigma; yet after having been sent home in irons, and a fourth time fitted out, he enlarged his discoveries, and opened a way to those rich countries on the continent, of which the Spaniards have since obtained possession; but he was so coldly received on his return to Spain, that he quitted the court in disgust, and died in retirement. After the death of Columbus, the Spaniards finding that there were gold mines in the island of Puerto Rico, established a colony there, and ungratefully and cruelly reduced the natives to slavery. The views of the court of Spain were next extended to settlements on the continent, and these were gradually obtained at the expense of much of the blood of the Spaniards, and of a great deal more of that of the injured natives. The limits of this abridgment admit not of a detail of the steps taken in this pursuit; suffice it to say, that the settlements and discoveries made on the isthmus of Darien led to the discovery and conquest of Mexico and Peru. The former of which empires was added to the dominions of Spain by Fernando Cortez, and at the time of his attack on it, was in extent five hundred leagues from east to west, and near two hundred from south to north, containing in this compass some of the most fruitfull, populous, and wealthy provinces in the world. The history of Mexico, prior to the invasion of the Spaniards, is limited to what the oral tradition of the country has handed down; stating, that the country was first inhabited by various savage tribes denominated Chichimecas, who were expelled from the plains of Mexico by another people equally savage, whom the Spanish writers call Navattacas. Other tribes, of which the Mexicans themselves were the sixth, all came from the north, and settled in this more comfortable region. After the people just named had built the city of Mexico, their sufferings from the various factions which arose among them, induced them to elect the grandson of a neighbouring monarch for their sovereign. After which, become sensible of the benefits resulting from this change in their political situation, they not only enjoyed felicity at home, but rose rapidly in reputation abroad. Their first king, whose name was Acamapixtli, reigned more than

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forty years, and was by the choice of the people succeeded by his son Vitzilocutly; and after a short reign the people elected in his room his son Chilua Popoca, though but ten years old. But the Tepeacans, to whose sovereign the Mexicans had long been tributary, murdering the young king, a war ensued, to conduct which the Mexicans chose for their fourth king, Izcoalt, a son of their first monarch. Under this sovereign they not only reduced the Tepeacan dominions to a province of their empire, but enlarged this last by the conquest of all the tribes surrounding the lake of Mexico. While by the same monarch a new system of legislation was established, and the election of the sovereign was removed from the people to six electors nominated by Izcoalt. After a prosperous reign of twelve years this prince died, and Motezuma, the first of the name, was unanimously raised to the throne. To this prince is ascribed the horrid custom of sacrificing a number of prisoners at the coronation of a new monarch. He subdued, after an obstinate and sanguinary struggle, the people of the Chalci. When Motezuma had secured himself from foreign enemies, he turned his attention to the civil administration of his kingdom, established courts of judicature through all the provinces, and appointed censors of the manners of the people. Motezuma died after a reign of twenty-eight years, and was succeeded by his son Tezazic, a weak and pusillanimous prince, who having worn the crown only four years was deprived of it by poison. Another son of Motezuma, named Axayaca, was next chosen, who passed a reign of eleven years in victories, and promoting the happiness of his people; on his decease, the electors raised to the throne one of their own number, named Autzal. This proved an excellent prince, whose fame in the field, after considerably extending his dominions, was equalled by his reputation for clemency, generosity, and humanity; after reigning about eleven years, the throne on his death was filled by Motezuma the second, the principal event of whose reign was the invasion of his empire by the Spaniards. The Mexicans were found not without science; they had a regularly adjusted calendar, and both symbolical paintings and written characters. In their religious faith they acknowledged one Supreme God, the Creatour of heaven and earth; whom they termed ineffable, but

though ascribing to him omnipotence, they had no conception of his omnipresence; neither could they believe that he could govern the universe without the assistance of inferior deities, which they considered as favourable spirits produced occasionally. They entertained an imperfect notion of the immortality of the soul, and a state of retribution; though their ideas of morality were extremely absurd and gross. They gave to the sun, moon, the morning star, and the sea, the honour next to that which they rendered to the Supreme God. In part of their religious rites was visible a striking resemblance to some both Jewish and Christian, while others were absurd, inhuman, and beastly; and of these one of the most detestable, and which doubtlessly had no small share in bringing down on the nation those Divine judgments, of which the Spaniards were the instruments, was that of human sacrifices; in which it is said, the blood of twenty thousand victims have been shed in one day. Remarkable was the regular arrangement of the Mexican government. Particular councils presided over the several departments of the state. The revenues of the crown, which were enormous, arose principally from the contributions of the people, either voluntary or extorted, and the wisdom displayed in the course of education given their youth, in which the attainment of good and manly habits was more particularly pursued, might shame nations who boast of greater information. It was in the fourteenth year of the reign of Motezuma the second, that the Spaniards arrived on his coast under the command of Cortez, who having obtained what information he could in respect to the character of the prince, the disposition of the people, and the situation of the empire, though he saw that he had many difficulties to encounter, deemed himself conquerour of Mexico. Under the pretence of being authorized to act as embassador of Charles the fifth of Austria, Cortez had pressed to be admitted to an audience by the Mexican sovereign; but being unable to obtain this, and his perseverance in seeking it having produced a positive order for him to quit the Mexican dominions, he determined to act in defiance of it, and quickly entered into alliance with various caziques, enemies to Motezuma, and built the town of Villa Rica de Vera Cruz. From A. D. 1519. this new settlement, with a Spanish force of only three hundred and

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fifty foot, thirteen horse, and six pieces of cannon, leaving for the defence of the place one hundred and fifty men, and two horses, did Cortez commence his march for the conquest of the Mexican empire. Having subdued the republick of Ilascala in his march, with the constrained permission of the emperour, he with all his army, consisting of four hundred and fifty Spaniards, and about six thousand American allies, entered the city of Mexico itself on the eighth of November. This metropolis lies in an extensive plain, surrounded by high mountains, the numerous streams from which form different lakes, and particularly two of a larger size. All the lakes together took up a space of near thirty leagues in circuit, and their banks were adorned with about fifty different cities and towns. In the middle of one of the large lakes, which was of salt water, stood Mexico itself, containing it is said sixty thousand families. All the streets were broad and straight, and some were bordered with canals, perpetually crowded with canoes and other small vessels, and having bridges thrown over them. And here the Spaniards beheld with astonishment the opulence and good government of this empire, and the industry, address, and genius of the inhabitants. They found the arts of life carried to a great height, and the splendour of a court, and all the indulgencies of a powerfull monarch exhibited in the highest style, and after the most variegated manner. But during the time that Motezuma was entertaining Cortez and his Spaniards with appearance of the greatest hospitality, advices reached this commander of hostilities having taken place between the forces he had left at Vera Cruz and a Mexican army. Finding that Motezuma was not unapprized of this, and reflecting on the very perilous situation in which he himself and his followers stood, Cortez came to the bold determination of crowning his unprincipled invasion of the empire, with seizing the person of the head of it. This he effected, removed Motezuma to the Spanish quarters, and having prevailed on him to send for the principal officers of the army which had attacked the Spaniards at Vera Cruz, after having them tried and condemned by a Spanish court martial, he had them most iniquitously. and cruelly burnt alive before the royal palace, having put Motezuma himself into fetters during the time of the execution. The

ascendancy he had thus acquired at Mexico, was manifested still more strongly by Motezuma's at length proposing to acknowledge himself the vassal of Charles the fifth, and under the plea of some ancient tradition of the Mexicans, with the consent of his caziques and nobles, drawing up a formal instrument of homage to that monarch; hoping by these means to induce Cortez to do, what he dared not attempt to force him to, quit the metropolis with his Spaniards; but while Cortez was receiving for his sovereign the formal surrender of a great empire on the coast, the arrival of another body of Spaniards, sent by the governour of Cuba to seize Cortez, and deprive him of the benefit of all his exertions, obliged this last commander to leave Mexico for a time, and meet the leader of this newly arrived force; having conquered whom, and brought all his forces under his own command, he returned to the capital; where he found the few Spaniards he had left there in most imminent danger of being overpowered by the Mexicans, who had conspired, A. D. 1525. (but perhaps not unjustly) for their destruction. The conduct of Alvarado, the Spanish commander left in the capital by Cortez, had greatly irritated the people; and though he sustained himself against them until his general arrived, they afterwards renewed their attack on the Spanish quarters; and when it had been agreed between Motezuma and Cortez, that the latter and his forces should evacuate the city, a fresh attack was made even while the emperour was in his royal robes haranguing his subjects; when Motezuma received a wound which brought him to his grave in three days. The Mexicans, though manifesting great signs of grief at his death, quickly elected another emperour of the name of Quilavaca. Under his direction hostilities continued, until with a view of deceiving the Spaniards proposals of peace were made, to which Cortez would gladly have given ear; but apprized of the treachery intended, he came to the resolution of attempting a retreat in the night; this with much difficulty and great loss he effected, yet continually harassed by the enemy, until at length having brought a very large army in front of the retreating Spaniards, they came to a general engagement; in which the last were victorious, chiefly by Cortez having penetrated to the royal standard and taken it. While he was continuing his

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retreat, the new emperour of Mexico died, and was succeeded by Guatimozin, nephew and son-in-law of Motezuma. Meeting at Ilascala with a friendly reception, and drawing from thence what forces he wished, he proceeded to subdue several tribes that took part with the Mexicans; and receiving unexpectedly some small reinforcements of Spaniards, who came on the coast with other views, determined to attempt in conjunction with his American allies the conquest of the Mexican empire, to effect which the metropolis must be taken. Against this he therefore advanced, and, after a long course of previous engagements and operations, commenced the siege of the city. Nearly three months passed ere he made himself master of it by the capture of the emperour, on the news of which all further resistance ceased, after more than an hundred thousand Mexicans had fallen. The city was resigned to plunder, and Cortez after all his acts of fortitude, was base enough to put Guatimozin to the torture, in hope of forcing him to discover concealed treasures. The fall of the metropolis not only gave Cortez the rest of the Mexican empire, but led to the conquest of several neighbouring countries, which opened a way for the Spaniards to a large tract of the coast of the South Sea. Having triumphed over the caziques, who opposed him, Cortez returned in triumph to Mexico, the government of which he arranged, and not only repaired, but ornamented and enlarged the city. As Cortez had all along experienced jealousy and opposition from some of his countrymen, so after all his success he continued to do; neither did he from his own sovereign meet with the return of that frank confidence which his loyalty and fidelity deserved. A number of civil officers were sent over from Spain who endeavoured to retrench his authority; and while he was absent on a distant expedition, on the mere report of his death seized his effects; but Cortez having succeeded in this expedition, and also got the better of a conspiracy in which Guatimozin was concerned, and for which that prince was put to the disgracefull death of the gallows, had these unprincipled officers deposed and confined. On his thinking it proper to make a voyage to Spain, and appear personally before Charles, that monarch created him marquis of Guaxaca; but far from sending him back with any increase of

A. D. 1528.

authority, he in process of time appointed a viceroy of Mexico, leaving to the man who had conquered that empire for him the office and power of captain general only; yet this ungratefull return prevented not Cortez from continuing his exertions for extending his jealous sovereign's dominions in America, until certain disputes with the viceroy induced him to make another voyage to his native country, A. D. 1542. where he remained until his death in fifteen hundred and fifty-four: and from his time Mexico having been merely an appendage of the crown of Spain, exhibits nothing worthy of notice in a general history.

The discovery of Peru. A. D. 1525.

The chief of the expedition which set sail from Panama on the discovery of Peru, was Francisco Pizarro, a Spaniard of illegitimate having under his command at most one hundred and fourteen Spaniards, with four horses. In this first voyage, in the progress of which he was joined by another vessel under the command of Jacobo Almagro, who was included in the commission issued by the governour of Panama, after suffering very severe hardships in working slowly towards the south, and though three years expired ere he returned to Panama, he little more than ascertained the existence of such a country, and that it abounded with what the Spaniards were so eager after, the precious metals. The refusal of a continuance of the commission by the governour of Panama, obliged Pizarro to resort to Charles the fifth himself in Spain, from whom, on a statement of what he had already discovered, he obtained the commission of governour of the territories which the Spaniards under his auspices should conquer in Peru, with the title of a nobleman, and a grant of a twentieth part of the profits arising from his conquests, as far as to a certain annual sum. His partner, Almagro, was made governour of Tumbez; and a third adventurer embarked with them, named Ferdinando de Lugue, an ecclesiastick, was recommended to be made bishop of that place, and protector-general of the native Americans. Pizarro and his fellow-adventurers having provided three vessels, they sailed under the command of the A. D. 1530. former from Panama, and landing on the coast long before they came to the place of their destination, made a tedious march under very great difficulties, and at length, having reached the capital of

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the province of Coaqui, most iniquitously plundered the place, and destroyed the good fame which the Spaniards had acquired in their preceding run upon the coast. Pizarro proceeded to Tumbez, whence he was invited over to the island of Puna, in the bay of Guayaquil, where he, it is said, provoked by a conspiracy of the natives to cut off him and his men, fell upon them, took all their caziques prisoners, and subdued the whole island, and collected there a very great booty. On his passing from hence to the continent, the people of Tumbez, with whom he had shared the plunder of Puna, and whom he considered as his allies, commenced hostilities against him, in return for which he attacked their town, and made a terrible slaughter of the inhabitants. In the engagements which ensued, the natives finding themselves constantly worsted, began to think Spaniards favoured by heaven, and to deem it impious to resist them. Hence they strove to appease them by vast presents of silver; while the reports they made of the great wealth, and the civil distractions then prevailing in the country, inflamed the avarice and ambition of Pizarro, who to forward his conquests built the city of St. Miguel de Piura, as a place of arms and retreat. Huasca, Inca of Peru, who resided at Cuzco, was then engaged in a war with his younger brother, Atahualapa, king of Quito, and these dissentions prevented either of the brothers from paying attention to the arrival or conduct of the Spaniards. The empire which Pizarro had thus invaded, extends from one degree forty minutes north to twenty-six degrees ten minutes south latitude, being in length about eighteen hundred miles, while its greatest breadth does not much exceed three hundred and ninety. The younger of the brothers then contending for it (for Atahualapa had conceived the iniquitous design of depriving his brother of the empire), was the more popular, as well as successfull; and having defeated Huasca in three battles, at last got possession of his person, threw him into a dungeon, plundered his effects, and treated his women inhumanly. Such was the situation of the empire, when Pizarro began his march from St. Miguel to attempt the reduction of it, having on a muster of his forces no more than sixty-seven horse, and of foot one hundred and one. Though Atahualapa employed persons to watch the motions of the Spaniards,

and dive into their designs, yet no obstacle was opposed to their progress; on the contrary they were treated with hospitality by the people, and experienced unreserved civility even from the Inca's officers; and at length a native of distinction addressed Pizarro, and in the name of Atahualapa himself making him a present, assured him of his friendship. The specimens of manufacture which the Spaniards found on their march, the buildings which they saw, the roads with which they met, all indicated a people far advanced in civilization. Among the last, the great road of the Inca's, extending twelve hundred miles from Cuzco to Quito, was paved with the utmost art, and was of breadth sufficient for six horses to pass abreast on it easily; but the sanguinary idolatry practised in the human sacrifices periodically offered, struck even the Spaniards with horrour. After a march in which they suffered great hardships, Pizarro and his adventurously avaricious party, arrived at a river of which the banks were well peopled. Here having astonished the Peruvians, by a party of horse swimming over it, they seized some of the inhabitants who were fleeing, and by torture forced one to inform them, that Atahualapa was prepared to meet the Spaniards as enemies. Yet successive embassies arrived from that prince with presents and assurances of his friendly disposition towards the Spaniards: and one appeared too from the unfortunate Huasca, begging them to revenge his cause on the usurper. At length Pizarro reached Caxamalca, where he had expected to see Atahualapa, but found him retreated to his army at some distance. After some previous communications, the Inca followed by his army advanced to Caxamalca, and from the symptoms of intended treachery which he descried, Pizarro thought himself justified in first attacking the Peruvians; whom by the superiority of their arms, and the assistance of their horses and their dogs, the Spaniards defeated with great carnage, taking Atahualapa himself prisoner. This event on the one hand occasioned the greatest confusion in the empire; every ambitious nobleman seizing the opportunity of erecting a little dominion for himself, and ruling most despotically; and on the other, afforded many of his subjects an opportunity of manifesting the most devoted fidelity to the Inca, by coming into the Spanish quarters, and

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waiting on him with the most affectionate attention. The avidity for gold and silver manifested by the Spaniards naturally suggested to the captive monarch the hope of obtaining his liberty by means of a large ransom. This he consequently proposed, and a vast sum was collected; but in the mean time, Huasca having offered still larger sums for his restoration, his brother had him put to death. Pizarro was now joined by his colleague, Almagro, with a reinforcement of one hundred and fifty Spaniards, and fifty horses, and having collected all the treasure, a distribution of it was made, yet without the performance of the engagement entered into with the Inca, who was most perfidiously still detained in captivity; but his conquerours profited little by their wealth; finding not in the possession of it the happiness which they expected, they became discontented, thought they still had not sufficient, resorted to gaming among themselves, and under the rapid changes which this produced, these accursed plunderers became a band of the most corrupt and profligate miscreants on the globe; nor did the conduct of Pizarro prove him to be the least depraved of his countrymen, since, contrary to every obligation, he, under the hypocritical form of a judicial sentence which he had no authority to award, caused the Inca to be put to death. As the Peruvians immediately placed on the throne a legitimate brother of Huasca, named Manco Capac, Pizarro brought forward Taparpa, the son of Atahualapa, as successor to his father; but he surviving only a short time, the Spaniard had nothing but undisguised force left by which to secure the sovereignty of Peru.

A. D. 1534. Of this, however, he hesitated not to make use, and overcoming all opposition, at length arrived at Cuzco, where the Spaniards plundering every thing, not sparing either temples or graves, obtained more treasure than they had even received for the ransom of Atahualapa. The new Inca reduced to despair, repaired to Cuzco with presents, and entered into a treaty with Pizarro, who caused him to be crowned in the royal palace. Still two of his generals continued the war; but he who commanded in the southern provinces being twice defeated by Pizarro, this commander had an opportunity to pursue his purpose of establishing colonies, and he accordingly laid the foundation of the city of Lima, in twelve degrees and a half

south, about six miles from the South Sea, and nearly the same distance from the island and harbour of Callao. He built also another city about four degrees to the northward, and named it Truxillo; and at both places he divided not only the lands, but the natives among the new colonists, without making any distinction between those who had been born free, and those who had been slaves from their birth. Advices being received from Spain of grants to Pizarro, as well as of that of the title of marquis, and of the grant of the same title to Almagro, as well as of an extent of country to the southward, which contained the rich province of Chili, after some dissentions, in which even blood was shed among the Spaniards themselves, and the conclusion of a treaty between the two new marquises, Almagro began his march for the southward, and with the assistance of the natives, at the command of the Inca penetrated into Chili, having most unfeelingly sacrificed the poor Peruvians in his march over the Andes. Finding every symptom of great wealth in the country, Almagro determined to subdue all those provinces which did not acknowledge the sovereignty of the Inca; but when he had reduced them to subjection, he received from Spain a new grant, within the limits of which he found that the city of Cuzco was. This was an acquisition too important not to be immediately secured. In that city in the mean time the Inca, Manco Capac, finding that the Spaniards still kept him prisoner, however numerous the sums he advanced to them, determined to escape, and by a stratagem effected his resolution. No sooner was he at liberty than he raised his subjects against the invaders, himself at the head of a very large army attacking the Spaniards in Cuzco; but these by a promise of freedom inducing the slaves to join them, were enabled to resist the attack, until the news of Almagro's approach induced the Inca to raise the siege, and despairing of recovering his dominions, he dismissed his army, and retreated himself to a place of security, there to wait for a more favourable opportunity of attacking his rapacious adversaries. An attack on Lima, where the marquis Pizarro was, failed at the same time. After the Inca had retired from before Cuzco, Almagro arrived there from Chili, and summoned Ferdinand Pizarro, who commanded in the city for his brother, to

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A. D. 1537.

deliver it into his hands; but this being refused, Almagro contrived to seduce the garrison, and got possession of the capital without bloodshed. Hence commenced a civil war between him and the marquis Pizarro, which ended in the capture, formal trial, and execution of the former; who received burial only from the fidelity of an old slave. Neither were those of Pizarro's faction contented with the destruction of Almagro, Ferdinando Pizarro especially bitterly persecuted all his friends; but by this conduct he excited such discontent, that he deemed it requisite to return to old Spain, to defend himself against the charges preferred against him; and there he was thrown into confinement, in which he continued three and twenty years. The marquis was now left to bear by himself the whole burthen of the administration of Peru; and from the just enmity of the natives, the decrease of their dread of the Spanish fire-arms, and horses, and their improved skill in war, he had a difficult contest to support, until the multitude of Spaniards attracted by the discovery of the mines of Potosi put an end to all opposition in that part of the country. In Chili, the natives who had not been in subjection to the Incas of Peru, or conquered by Almagro, made a valiant resistance, but were at length reduced to submission by an Italian officer in the Spanish service, named Valdiira, who built several cities, and was indefatigable in founding Spanish colonies, and forcing the poor Chilese to labour in their own gold mines, until their sufferings provoked them to revolt, and under the command of a leader of natural military genius, named Capaulican, they defeated the Spaniards, and having taken Valdiira prisoner, put him to a death which, though in itself shockingly cruel, was scarcely worse than he deserved. After this the war continued with various success: in the course of it Capaulican was taken prisoner and put to death; yet at the end of fifty years the Chilese remained unconquered. While these things were passing in Chili, in Peru the marquis Pizarro was reducing to the dominion of the Spaniards provinces till then unknown, but not without interruption from the natives of those which he had already over-run, neither without giving much attention to the suppression of the party of his deceased rival, Almagro, who had left a son, that was

by Pizarro detained in Lima, while his father's estate was confiscated, and himself reduced to the most necessitous circumstances. This naturally excited among his adherents conspiracies against Pizarro, one of which at length succeeded, and a party of thirteen openly attacked and slew him in his own palace at Lima. His own party then proclaimed young Almagro governour of Peru, and a civil war immediately commenced between them, and the Pizarrists. While this was going on, Vaca de Castro arrived at Quito with a commission of governour from the king, and he not granting to young Almagro the terms he demanded, an engagement ensued, in which, through treachery, Almagro was defeated, and afterwards by the same means delivered as a prisoner to De Castro, and by him put to death as a rebel. The civil war being extinguished, De Castro applied himself with real earnestness to the business of his government, introducing most laudable regulations, and pursuing every measure which could render Peru great and flourishing in itself, and advantageous to Spain: neither were his efforts to secure the natives from oppression by the Spaniards unsupported by the royal authority; many regulations were made for this purpose, and Charles the fifth at least endeavoured to secure the ease and happiness of his new subjects. But the wretches who were wont to tyrannise over them, transmitted to Europe mistatements of De Castro's conduct, in consequence of which a new governour, named Blasso Nunez Vela, was appointed viceroy of Peru. A. D. 1543. However laudably he exerted himself for the relief of the Peruvians, his inconsiderate conduct soon raised him numerous enemies, and his unjust treatment of his predecessor, whom he quickly imprisoned under pretence of his being accessary to a tumult, justly increased the dislike in which he was holden. These disturbances encouraged Gonzalo Pizarro to appear in arms, under pretence of preventing the consequences likely to arise from the misconduct of the viceroy and after a course of operations of considerable length, he defeated him in an engagement in which Vela was slain; after which Gonzalo entirely subdued the royal party, and might have rendered himself independent sovereign of Peru; but he chose to send to Old Spain to solicit for himself the government of the province; there, instead of his request being granted, the licenciate, Pedro Gasca, was appointed

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president of Peru. When this new officer arrived at his government, Gonzalo after some attempts at negociation opposed him openly, but the deep policy of Cásca brought the contest to an issue in favour of the royal party, and Gonzala terminated his life on the scaffold in the year fifteen hundred and forty-eight; but the reduction of Pizarro and his party afforded not tranquillity to the president. His inability to reward all who expected reward, in the measure they required, was the source of discontents, the uneasiness he experienced from which, determined the president to resign his government; a step for which he had provided by desiring to be recalled, and in compliance with which request, Don Antonio Mendoza was appointed in his room with the title of viceroy. On the arrival of this new governour at Lima, after the departure of Gasca, he found affairs in the utmost disorder; but by his wisdom and moderation, with the assistance of his son Francisco, he re-established the debilitated authority of the government; when he dispatched his son to Spain, with draughts of the mines of Potosi, and an estimate of the revenue to be drawn from
A. D. 1552. the new conquests; and quickly after his departure died himself much regretted. Great disturbances followed his decease. In the province of Charcas, the discontented Spanish inhabitants formed a body which broke out into open rebellion, though professing to act in the name of the sovereign, murdered the governour, chose a leader for themselves, and seized the town and mines of Potosi. Their own leader a party of them soon put to death. Another being elected and acting in the most tyrannical manner, was by orders of the royal court seized, condemned, and executed as a traitor. The very severe measures then taken against those concerned in the rebellion raised new discontents, which added to those caused by the edict to give liberty to the natives, occasioned a more extensive insurrection, in which the royal army was defeated; but the excesses committed by the conquerours alienated the inclinations of the inhabitants of Cuzco, the capital of Peru, from them; the royal party again increased, and the rebellion was at length subdued; Francisco Hernandez Giron, commander in chief of the malcontents, being taken prisoner, and publickly executed. The marquis Canneta, appointed
A. D. 1557. by Philip the second to succeed Mendoza, having arrived at Lima, took

every possible step to extinguish the latent sparks of the late conspiracy, while he laboured to attach the natives to his government by mildness and liberality; and at length prevailed on Sayri Tapac, the nearest relation of the Inca, Manco Capac, then deceased, to leave his retreat, and live among the Spaniards on an estate settled on him for life. Though the policy of the marquis Canneta was visible in thus reconciling the Inca to the Spanish government, he, by his rigour, excited so many enemies as rendered necessary his removal, and Don Diego Azevado was appointed to succeed him; but he dying on his voyage, the government fell on the Conde de Nueva; who was in a short time succeeded by Don Francisco de Toledo, who exhibited the most detestable oppression and cruelty in getting into his hands, after the death of Sayri Tapac, his elder brother the Inca Tapac Amaru, and having banished all his kindred to Lima, where they perished by various means in a short time, having him for feigned crimes sentenced to die by a publick execution; and though even the Spaniards petitioned against so nefarious an act, permitting him to suffer the sentence of decapitation, so wickedly pronounced against him. Thus ended the male line of the royal blood and the troubles of Peru, which has been from that time merely an appendage of the Spanish monarchy. The vile Toledo was soon after recalled, and being for his cruelty severely reprimanded by the king, having his estate sequestrated, and being himself confined to his house, was justly brought to his grave by grief, remorse, and chagrin. The reader's indignation must naturally have been excited at the iniquity, rapine, perfidy, cruelty, and oppression, exhibited in the transactions of the Spaniards in the new world; but when he is informed that to these was added the most shameless hypocrisy in boasting of miraculous assistance in their career of blood and rapine by various appearances of the Virgin Mary, and the apostle James, he will see that they thus fulfilled a portion of the prophecies relating to the papal apostacy, in asserting "lying wonders, and blaspheming them that dwell in heaven."

The history of Peru, previous to the Spanish invasion of the country, runs back only about four centuries, prior to which the tradition of the land states, that it was inhabited by savages, without

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laws or government, and who in respect to religion were idolaters, even still more sanguinary and abominable than the nations which the divine justice destroyed by the sword of Joshua. The individual who is said to have commenced the civilization of these wretches, was named Manco Capac, and is accounted the first of the Incas; and the fable, which supposes him and his female companion to have been children of the sun, seems to indicate, that they came from the east; but from what region, and how they got into Peru, will probably remain undiscovered until the great day of the manifestation of all things. Manco Capac is represented as a very able legislator, who having collected the Barbarians into society, instructed them in the arts of social life, and introduced among them both a civil and religious polity; and when he had reigned between thirty and forty years, still supported the fable of his being the child of the sun, and dying with the lie in his mouth, promised his children, that if they attended to his directions, he would succour them in all extremities. To this first monarch succeeded his eldest son Sinchi Roca, who divided his kingdom into four provinces, in the centre of which stood the city of Cuzco. In these provinces the inhabitants were arranged in divisions of a thousand, an hundred, fifty, and ten families, each under its proper magistrate; and the conduct of all the officers was subject to the inspection of a censor-general, who made his report to the Inca himself. Sinchi Roca, by the terrour of his arms rather than by the actual use of them, added various nations to those before under his dominions, and after a long and happy reign was on his decease succeeded by his son Lloque Upanqui, who extended his dominions by force of arms; and meeting with very determined opposition from the inhabitants of a province called Ayviri, continued hostilities until he had subdued them; nor did this monarch fail to establish the worship of the sun, so favourable to his own dignity, wherever his arms prevailed. Still a very considerable portion of his reign, and especially the latter part of it, was dedicated to the cultivation of the arts of peace, and to the improvement of the interior of his dominions and his subjects, and he died at an advanced age, with the reputation of the greatest captain and statesman that had yet swayed the sceptre of Peru. This monarch had for successor his eldest son,

Mayta Capac, who added to his subjects a number of tribes till then uncivilized, and dying in the thirtieth year of his reign, was succeeded by his eldest son Capac Yupanqui; whose reign presents nothing but a like round of expeditions and submissions, and ended by his decease at an advanced age; when the throne was filled by his son Roca, who to similar conquests added also the establishment of schools in his dominions, and the institution of a course of liberal education for his young nobility, with the erection of many works of art and magnificence, and died not until the fiftieth year of his reign; when he was succeeded by his son Yahuarhuacac. For many years did this prince reign in tranquillity, though not in inactivity, but employing himself in works of benevolence and liberality; yet his subjects were discontented, that he did not, like his ancestors, enlarge the extent of his dominions, and, though he would have complied with their desires, his utter aversion to war prevented his doing so, and the misbehaviour of his eldest son afforded a plausible excuse for not embarking in any foreign dispute for some years. But at length an insurrection broke out in the provinces of Chincafuya, at the success of which the Inca was so alarmed, that he disgracefully fled from his capital, to the capture of which the insurgents were advancing, when the above-mentioned prince, Virachoca, came forward in a new character, and unmasked those great qualities which had been concealed by a vicious course of life, assembled troops, faced and defeated the rebells, and so conducted himself, that his father was prevailed on to devolve on him the government of the country, himself withdrawing into retirement, in which he passed the remainder of his days, living to an advanced age. His son Virachoca, though glorying too openly in his superiority over his father, proved an excellent monarch, not only adding to the empire by the submissions which his reputation procured, but executing beneficial works of peace, among which was a grand canal, one hundred and twenty leagues long, and twelve feet deep. He is said to have reigned fifty years, and he was succeeded by his son, Pachacatec, who reigned near seventy years in great prosperity, incessantly improving and augmenting his dominions. The throne of Peru was next ascended by his son Yupanqui, whose conduct and achievements corresponded

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with the favourable opinion formed of him; he greatly extended the Peruvian territories, but seems not to have prospered in his attack on Chili. His internal works were both stately and beneficent; for, among other edifices, he erected a large hospital for the aged, the blind, and the lame: and he died full of years and glory. To this monarch succeeded his son Tupac Yupanqui, who pursued the accustomed course of the Peruvian sovereigns, attending alternately to domestick regulations and improvements, and to foreign conquests; and though by these last he greatly extended his dominions, he was foiled in all his attempts to subdue the kingdom of Quito. But his son and successor, Huayna Capac, after continuing the war three years during his own reign, completed that conquest. To this he afterwards added others on different sides of his dominions, and after a reign in which he displayed both great worth and ability, he was succeeded in the empire of Peru by his eldest son Huasca, having previously given the kingdom of Quito to a natural son, named Atahualapa, of whose successful war against his brother an account has already been given.

California.

Having thus abridged the history of the two largest conquests and colonies of the Spaniards in America, it will render the account of the whole of that country less intricate, if all the other Spanish settlements are described, before the history of those of any other nation is commenced. To begin this review from the north; California is a peninsula in the Pacific Ocean, issuing from the north-west coast of America and extending south-east as far as St. Zucar; it is bounded on the north by a continent very little known, on the east by New Mexico and the gulf of California, and by the Pacific Ocean on the south and west; in length running twelve degrees, and varying in its breadth from two hundred to fifty miles. While the climate in general is moderate, some parts of the country are both fertile and fine; nor is there any want of animals either wild or tame, or any scarcity of the fruits common in other parts of America. This region is said to be inhabited by three nations, each of which has many subdivisions; and they have a tradition of their ancestors having originally migrated from the north. The people are represented to be insensible and without knowledge or reflection, inconstant, im-

petuous, slothfull, yet insatiably fond of pleasure. Having no property among them when the Spanish missionaries arrived, the only similitude of government which they found, was that of one or more leaders of each tribe, who commanded it in war, and directed the gathering of the products of the earth, and regulated the fisheries. The greatest ingenuity of the Californians is displayed in their nets, which are said to excell those of all other nations. It is worthy of remark that no idolatry was discovered among this people; but, whencesoever they derived them, certain traces of the doctrine of Revelation are retained among them, and their priests, who are pretended sorcerers, have great influence over them. Though this peninsula was discovered soon after the conquest of Mexico, it was for a long time neglected by the Spaniards. To the jesuits, Spain owes the reduction of the savages which inhabit it; and were the court of Madrid to push its own interest in this country with half the zeal of the jesuits, California might become an highly valuable acquisition. The coasts of this peninsula, especially in the Vermilion Sea, as the gulf of California is called, are covered with inhabited islands, of which the best known, are the three Marys off Cape St. Zucar, which have good wood, water, abundance of game, saltpits, &c.

New Mexico.

On the eastern side of the gulf of California lies the province of New Mexico, extending a great way towards the north and being bounded on that side by high mountains, beyond which lies a country little explored, in which runs the river of the west, and over which roam the black-foot and other tribes of Indians. On the east it has Lousiana, and on the south it borders on some of the provinces of Mexico Proper; its extent from east to west is represented by some as of more than six hundred miles, and that from north to south to be more than nine hundred, but these limits are by no means ascertained. Most of the Spanish writers reckon eighteen provinces in it. The climate is salutary and pleasant, and the fertility of the soil is spoken of in the highest terms. The richness of the mines, the abundance of fruit and timber, the fields and meadows, fine rivers, and beautifull variety of hill and vale, land and water, the plenty of cattle wild and tame, together with that of fowls and fish, render New Mexico one of the pleasantest and richest countries on the

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globe; though finely watered, few of its streams are at all navigable, the Rio Solado and the Rio del Norte alone merit notice. The last of these flows through the whole length of the country, and afterwards discharges itself into the gulf of Mexico. New Mexico is said to contain a variety of different nations totally unconnected with each other, but the principal are the Apaches; a brave and resolute people, fond of liberty, who having in the seventeenth century rebelled against the king of Spain, were rather appeased than subdued, and have ever since remained the allies, not the subjects of Spain. The capital of this whole province is Santa Fé, situate on the Rio del Norte, in thirty-six degrees of north latitude, and about one hundred and thirty leagues from the sea. The region properly called New Mexico is inhabited by about ten different nations, all of which have now embraced Christianity, and pursue every species of industry except the cultivation of the soil. Santa Fé itself, is stated to be an handsome, well built town, and is the residence of the governour; but the jealous caution of the Spaniards has prevented authentick and more particular accounts of that and other towns in New Mexico reaching Europe.

Florida.

The Spanish dominions in America extended themselves from the southernmost part of New Mexico eastward, round the gulf to the peninsula of Florida, which was discovered in fourteen hundred and ninety-seven by John Cabot, a Venetian, in the service of Henry the seventh of England; but received its name from Juan Ponce de Leon, a Spaniard, on account of the festival on which he first fell in with it, and was at length entirely subdued in fifteen hundred and thirty-nine by Ferdinand Soto. The air of this province is pure and temperate, and in general salubrious; the soil abounds in all kinds of timber and fruit-trees, and great quantities of sassafras are annually exported; but little labour is necessary to obtain an ample supply of corn, pulse, roots, and herbs; and excellent, beef, veal, mutton are here produced; and great is the variety of valuable articles of commerce which this country affords. It is well watered, but its ports are indifferent, and difficult of access; the natives found in this country were of an olive colour, robust, active, and well-proportioned. The women are remarkably handsome; they accompany their

husbands into the field, swimming over the rivers with their children on their backs; and it is difficult to determine for which they are most admirable, their beauty, their courage, or their conjugal fidelity. The people of this country are immersed in the grossest idolatry, worship the sun and moon as supreme deities, and bear an irreconcileable hatred to the Christians, for the ill usage they have experienced from some, who called themselves such; they are subject and extremely submissive to petty chiefs, whom they term paraousti. Next in authority to these are the priests, who act also as magicians and physicians. The only towns possessed by the Spaniards in Florida, were St. Augustine, and St. Mattheo. The former stands in thirty degrees north latitude, and lies along the shore in the shape of a parallelogram, the streets crossing each other at right angles. St. Mattheo is situated about fifteen leagues to the north, and is a place much less considerable.

Terra Firma.

Though the whole peninsula extending from the isthmus of Darien to Cape Horn, is sometimes termed Peruviana, several regions in it do not acknowledge the dominion of the Spaniards. The heart of the country has not been civilized; the Portuguese possess a large tract, and other nations have established themselves on the skirts of this vast region. The jurisdiction of the viceroy and captain of the Spanish dominions in South America, is divided (like the government of Mexico Proper) into several audiences; each of these may be compared to an ancient French provincial parliament, and consists of judges appointed by the king, and a number of inferior officers under them, the whole being directed by a president. The royal officers holding their places in general but for a few years, seize with avidity the opportunity then given them of making their fortunes by fleecing the people. The province of Terra Firma is a very extensive country, bounded on the south by Peru; the country of Amazons and part of Guiana, by the North Sea on the north and east; and by the South Sea on the west, and on the north-west it is by the isthmus of Darien joined to Mexico. In length from east to west it extends about thirteen hundred miles, and is about seven hundred and fifty broad. This region, called also New Castile, and Castilla del Oro, was discovered by Columbus in his third voyage.

The climate is neither pleasant nor healthy; the inhabitants being in one season scorched by intense heat, and in another almost drowned by the perpetual rains. As in so extensive a region the soil varies, in some parts of it the trees, though they put forth a perfect verdure, yet bear scarcely any fruit; in others the soil is so fertile, that it requires but little assistance from the husbandman to produce two harvests; while the meadows are stocked with the most beautifull herds of cattle. The mountains abound with wild beasts, and the rivers, seas, and lakes teem with fish; but the mines and pearl fisheries are said to be almost exhausted. The natives have never been totally subdued, being a warlike people, with almost impregnable fastnesses, and bearing an inveterate hatred to the Spaniards. Terra Firma is divided into eight districts, the isthmus of Darien or Terra Firma Proper, Carthagena, Santa Martha, Rio de la Hacha, Venezuela, New Granada, New Andalusia, and Popayan. The first settlement made by the Spaniards in the isthmus of Darien, was Nombre de Dios; but its repeated destruction by the English induced the inhabitants to search for a safer situation, and in fifteen hundred and eighty-four a colony was planted at Porto Bello, in nine degrees thirty-four minutes north, lying close to the sea on the eastern side of the isthmus. This place however is of no importance but for the harbour, and little is the trade of it but during the forty days of the fair, which is opened on the arrival of the galleons, when the Spanish merchants barter their merchandize for the plate brought overland from Panama, whither it is previously conveyed from Peru and Chili. Panama itself stands in eight degrees fifty-seven minutes north latitude, on that large and handsome bay from which it has its name. A few years after a colony was settled here, Charles the fifth granted it all the privileges of a city, but being afterwards burnt by an English adventurer, it was removed to its present, about a league from its old situation. As the governour of the province resides in this city, it is commonly deemed the capital of it. The contiguous province of Carthagena derives its importance among the governments of New Castile, from the great trade of its capital of the same name; for the country is neither fertile nor populous. The city, which is well laid out in broad, uniform, and

well-paved streets, is populous. As the galleons touch first at Carthagena on their arrival from old Spain, the inhabitants enjoy the first fruits of that trade; when the merchants of Santa Fé, Popayan and Quito, not only dispose of their stock, but purchase the European goods wanted in their respective countries. The next province to the south is Santa Martha, bounded on the one side by the Rio Santo de Magdalena, and on the other, by the Rio de la Hacha, extending nearly an hundred and forty miles from east to west, and above two hundred from north to south. The country is very mountainous, and some of its mountains are very high; whence the air is more cool, wholesome, than in other parts of America near the equator, while the vallies are very fertile. The gold mines are rich, and in the mountains are found precious stones and marbles. Santa Martha, the capital, lies on a branch of the Rio Grande in eleven degrees, thirty-four minutes north; it is the residence of the governour of the province, and the see of a bishop: it has suffered much from hostile fleets. On the southern frontier of Santa Martha is situated the small province of Rio de la Hacha, pleasant, tolerably healthy, and exceedingly fruitfull. In the middle of this province are mines of jasper and chalcedony, and on the coast a very rich pearl fishery. The inhabitants of the open country, a numerous and obstinate people, have retained their liberty. The capital, of the same name with the province, stands in eleven degrees six minutes north latitude, and contains about an hundred houses. Next to the north lies the province of Venezuela, which, including the district of Caraccas, is a large province, the climate temperate, and the soil very fertile. The American inhabitants are said to amount to an hundred thousand, exclusive of Spaniards, mulattoes, and negroes; here are fine plantations of cocoa, sugar, and tobacco; and the lake Maracaibo, eighty leagues in compass, adds equally to the beauty and convenience of the province. Still the inhabitants suffer under a want of good fresh water. The capital, called both Venezuela and Cora, lies on the North Sea; but though the residence of the governour and a bishop's see, is not remarkable for its opulence, or its buildings. The town of Maracaibo is more wealthy, elegant, and pleasant, and is not only a port celebrated for ship-building, but the staple for the

commodities of Merida and the other towns situated on the frontiers of New Grenada. The country of Caraccas extends as far as Cape Blanco; the coast is rocky and mountainous; but in general the air is clear, and the climate wholesome. Caraccas, the chief town, is large, wealthy, and populous, but extremely difficult of access. Beyond the province of Venezuela, lies that of New Andalusia; which, including the districts of Camana and Paria, extends five hundred miles from north to south, and about two hundred and seventy from east to west. The interior is woody and mountainous, variegated with fine vallies yielding corn and pasturage; yet the produce of the country consists chiefly in dying drugs, gums, medicinal roots, brazil-wood, sugar, tobacco, and some valuable timber. Comana or Cumana, sometimes too called New Corduba, the capital, stands in nine degrees north latitude, and was founded by the Spaniards in the year fifteen hundred and twenty. New Granada is an inland province, and sometimes called Santa Fé; it is bounded by Popayan on the west; by Peru on the south; on the east by Venezuela, and Santa Martha, Rio de la Hacha, and the same province of Venezuela, on the north. The whole is supposed to include a space of three hundred and sixty miles in length, and nearly as much in breadth. This region is beautifully variegated with hills covered with verdure, and fruitfull valleys. The mountains contain gold, silver, and emeralds, and the vales produce all the necessaries of life, together with great quantities of drugs, and other rich articles of commerce. Though this province lies between the first and ninth degrees of north latitude, the climate is temperate, affording in the year two summers and two winters, without the intervention of spring and autumn. The city of Santa Fé de Bogata, the capital, is the residence of the royal audience, and of the archbishop, who has for suffragans the bishops of Carthagena, Santa Martha, and Popayan. The city is large, populous, opulent, well-built, and adorned with fine houses, and magnificent palaces. There are besides the capital, Tunia, Trinidada, Truxillo, Merida, and a variety of other populous towns, with the inhabitants of which strangers have no intercourse. Popayan, the last province in Terra Firma, is of very large extent; being bounded on the south by Peru; by Carthagena on the north;

on the east by New Granada; and on the west, by the South Sea. Here the Spaniards hold a number of large, well-built, and strongly fortified towns; but the open country is much exposed to the ravages of the native Americans, who affect independence, and implacably hate the Spaniards. The riches of this province consist in gold mines, precious stones, gums, and cotton. Popayan, the capital, lies within two degrees of the line, on the banks of a river that falls into the Magdalena; it is a bishop's see, and the residence of the governour, and a large populous city, but chiefly inhabited by creoles, mulattoes, Indians and negroes.

Peru and Chili having been already noticed,* the next Spanish government in South America not yet spoken to, is that of Paraguay, a country discovered in fifteen hundred and twenty-six, but which was first brought into actual obedience by the jesuits. The climate

* Yet an additional particular or two, which the reader may think ought to have been mentioned, shall be here thrown into a note. The city of Lima, standing in twelve degrees two minutes south latitude, is in a pleasant and beautifull situation in the great valley of Lima; it is ornamented with some magnificent buildings, contains numerous and some stately convents, and the principal churches of the different orders exceed in splendour all imagination, every part of them being covered with plate, or with ornaments equal in value. The climate here is always equal and temperate; neither rain, hail, snow, or thunder and lightning are known; but the earthquakes are frequent and terrifick. No less than seven considerable are enumerated; in that of sixteen hundred and eighty-seven, after the people had been warned to leave the city by one shock, which threw down many of the finest publick buildings, and killed great numbers of the inhabitants, another so violent took place, that it laid all in ruins; the sea in the mean time first retiring, and then returning with such fury, that it overwhelmned Callao, the port of Lima, the adjacent country, and all the miserable inhabitants. The same port and town were entirely destroyed by another earthquake in seventeen hundred and forty-six. The mountain of Potosi, so celebrated for its silver mines, is a barren hill, on which grow only some useless shrubs: it was in the year fifteen hundred and forty-five, that its treasures were first discovered. An American who lived at Porco, pursuing some wild goats up this mountain, took hold of a shrub to assist him in his ascent, which yielding to his weight, came up by the roots, and discovered a mass of silver, while there were large lumps of the metal in the earth that adhered to the roots of the plant. This discovery did not remain long a secret; and the Spaniards have since opened three other mines; from which four is chiefly extracted the great quautity of silver imported into Europe. Though little is heard of the gold of this country, it is by

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is temperate, the soil fertile, and plentifully watered, abounding with timber and fruit-trees, and producing great quantities of cotton, sugar, indigo, pimento, ippecacuanha, and a variety of other valuable drugs. The plains are covered with the most usefull quadrupeds, and the mountains contain vast treasures of gold and silver, from which the jesuits have prudently abstained. Soon after Juan de Sobras had founded the city of Nuestra Senora del Assumption, a few jesuits went to Paraguay, and converted about fifty families of the natives, by whom a great many others were induced to follow their example. Though they had long disdained to submit to the arms of the Portuguese and Spaniards, they became willing converts to the jesuits, who learned their language, conformed to their manners, and submitted to the greatest hardships, until they had an opportunity of cultivating the minds of their savage flock. The address and perseverance of the jesuits on this occassion can scarcely be surpassed; they assembled the wild people into towns, gave them a civil polity, disciplined and armed them against the Portuguese, and soon enabled them to drive them out of the country. The mildness of the yoke imposed, and the exemption from all marks of servitude, rendered the natives extremely attached to the missionaries, and made numerous converts. Above three hundred and forty thousand families became subjects of the fathers. In each of about threescore parishes on the banks of the rivers Paraguay and Parana, a jesuit was supreme in all causes, governing not only with the authority of a monarch, but with the influence and reputation of an oracle. The regulations established were indeed admirable; industry was universal, but riches were no where to be seen. The general produce arising from agriculture and manufactures was carried to the magazines of the society, whence it was distributed to individuals as occasion demanded;

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no means destitute of that metal: on the frontiers towards Lima is one of the richest mines in America, called the Golden Grange. Near La Pas is a mountain of remarkable height, called Illimani, from the side of which a rock was separated by a flash of lightning, the fragments of which yielded a great quantity of gold. At the other extremity of the same audience, towards Chili, the country abounds with mines of gold and silver; and there is one gold mine particularly rich in the neighbourhood of Tarija, in the territory of Chocayas.

the surplus being exported to Buenos-Ayres, and exchanged for commodities which the country does not produce, that the natives might not have occasion to leave their country to obtain any necessaries. The ecclesiastical government was no less wisely regulated than the civil; and the effect which the regularity of it produced on the minds of the natives was astonishing; they were punctual in their religious duties, faithfull in their dealings, charitable to the distressed, humble, obedient, and industrious. A supreme council of all the fathers was annually holden for promoting the common concerns of the mission, and over this council, it is reported, neither the king of Spain or the pope exerted any authority; and it is affirmed that one maxim is strongly inculcated by the jesuits, that a native who has any regard for his soul will not maintain any intercourse with a subject of Spain or Portugal; and the natives were restrained to that measure of knowledge which answered the purposes of the jesuits, and chiefly confined to mechanical arts, painting, and musick; for which last they appeared naturally to possess a genius. To be still better provided against foreign intrusion, the jesuits raised so considerable a military force, as to be able to draw out seventy or eighty thousand well-disciplined troops. The capital of Paraguay, the city of the Assumption, standing at the conflux of the rivers Parana and Paraguay, in twenty-five degrees eleven minutes south, is large, well-built, and populous.

Buenos-Ayres.

Immediately to the south of Paraguay commences the region denominated from the pleasantness of the climate Buenos-Ayres, which name is extended to the whole tract, bounded on the north by Paraguay; on the east by Tucuman; and on the south by the land of Magellan. The country is watered by the great river La Plata, so called from the abundance of silver found among the inhabitants of the country about it, though that in fact was brought from Peru. The capital of the government, called Nuestra Senora de Buenos Ayres, was founded in the year fifteen hundred and thirty-five; it stands on a point called Cape Blanco, on the south side of the Plata. The situation is a fine plain, rising by a gentle ascent from the river; the city contains three thousand houses, mostly of chalk or brick. The climate and soil of the country are spoken

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of in the highest terms; it abounds in horned cattle and horses, and the greatest expense in the acquisition of one of those usefull animals is that of catching it: all kinds of fish are in great abundance, and the fruits of every quarter of the globe grow here in the utmost perfection. Within the government of Buenos-Ayres are three other cities, Monte Video, Corientes, and Santa Fé, but all very inferior to the capital.

Patagonia.

Patagonia, or the land of Magellan, extends from the southern boundaries of Buenos-Ayres and Chili to the extremity of the southern peninsula of America, reaching quite across that narrow part of the continent: it was discovered in the year fifteen hundred and nineteen by Ferdinand Magellan; but the accounts received of the country and its inhabitants are very defective. The people, at least some of them, are of a gigantick stature, very barbarous, yet differing in their manners, as they lie at a greater or less distance from civilized regions. The country is said to support numerous herds of wild horned cattle and horses, first brought hither by the Spaniards, and astonishingly increased: of the products of the soil nothing is related; either is there any thing more satisfactory mentioned of the large island, Terra del Fuego, separated from the continent by the straits of Magellan, and deriving its name from the volcanos seen on it. The island extends three degrees and a half from east to west, and nearly half as much from north to south; the land is rough and mountaincus, but containing well watered and fertile vallies. The inhabitants are said to be as fair as the Europeans, going naked, but with their bodies painted. The inhabitants of the north coast are simple, and perfectly harmless; but those on the south are said to be savage and treacherous. Round the peninsula and in the straits of Magellan and Le Maire, lie a number of small islands, of which scarcely any thing more than the names is known.

Brasil.

The Spanish dominions in America having now been all reviewed, the Portuguese colony of Brasil next presents itself to notice. The whole country along the sea coast from the river La Plata in the thirty-fifth degree of south latitude, to the river of the Amazons under the equator is named Brasil, and subject to the crown of Portugal; it is said to extend from east to west about nine hundred miles. This

country, the Portuguese say, was discovered by Pedro Alvarez Capralis in fifteen hundred and one, and the first settlement made in it was the city of St. Salvador, built in fifteen hundred and forty-nine. Though the first aspect of Brasil from the sea be unfavourable, on a nearer inspection the country is delightfull, its eminences being covered with wood, and the valleys and savannahs with the most refreshing verdure. The northern provinces, like other lands near the line, are subjects to tornadoes, tempests, and all the fury of the elements; while the southerly regions enjoy a temperate climate and a fertile soil. Within the torrid zone no country produces a greater variety of huge serpents; some of which, as the Liboya or Roebuck snake, extend to the wonderfull length of thirty feet, being two or three yards in circumference; and the serpent called Ibibaboka is asserted to be seven yards long, and furnished with venom that kills almost instantaneously; great is the variety of beautifull birds, as well as of very exquisite fruits; but the chief commodities of this region are Brasil wood, ebony, dying woods, ambergrise, balsams, indigo, sugar, tobacco, crystal, gold, diamonds, and other precious stones; the trade in all which carried on by the Portuguese is very great. The mines of gold and diamonds are said to yield above five millions sterling annually, and it has been affirmed, that the court of Portugal deduces greater advantages from this single colony, than Spain does from all her vast possessions in South America. The whole of Brazil, being a principality which gives a title to the presumptive heir to the crown of Portugal, is divided into fifteen capitanias; of which only eight are annexed to the crown, the rest having been granted as fiefs for extraordinary services, to noblemen who do little more than acknowledge the sovereignty of the king of Portugal, and his representative the viceroy of Brasil. This minister having both the civil and military command, maintains the state of a sovereign prince in the city of St. Salvador in the capitania of Bahia de todos los Sanctos, which itself is the richest and most important province in Brasil; yet the air and climate do not correspond with its other natural advantages; but the capital, St. Salvador, called also Cividad de Bahia, is populous, and magnificent; the trade carried on here is prodigious, and the manners of the gentry are polished. In St. Salvador are

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twelve or fourteen thousand Portuguese, with three times that number of negroes, besides foreigners who reside in the city. Hence a conjecture may be formed of the populousness of the province, which abounds with opulent cities and noble plantations of sugar, tobacco, indigo. In the captainship of Rio Janeiro, so denominated from that river, the capital bearing the same name, though sometimes called St. Sebastian, is rich and populous, and has an admirable port, which receives an annual fleet from Europe; this province, by its diamond mines and plantations, vies with Bahia in opulence and importance. Off the coast of Brasil, in twenty-seven degrees thirty-five minutes south lies the island of St. Catharine, about twenty miles long, and six broad, which is one of the most beautifull, temperate, and fertile spots in the world, and where the Portuguese have a flourishing colony. On the first arrival of the Portuguese in Brasil, the natives were divided into contending states and factions, of which the strangers took advantage to make an easy prey of the country. The Portuguese are stated to have given an unfair account of the manners of these Americans to justify their own attacks upon them, and particularly to have misrepresented them, in asserting, that they were devoid of all religious faith, though they acknowledged, that they had priests, and believed in a future state of rewards and punishments; but it is observed, that they had no idols or temples. They have among them a scale of civil subordination; and the Lex talionis is with them the fundamental principle of retributive justice, which is dealt out by persons appointed by the prince, who himself also sits in person. Their hospitality is remarkable; and in war they were active and indefatigable.

Republic of St. Paul.

At the distance of about thirty miles from the interior frontier of St. Vincent and to the north of that province, surrounded by inaccessible mountains and almost impervious forests, lies a little republic denominated that of St. Paul, composed of outlaws from the surrounding colonies, which have gradually formed a democratical state. Being in number not above four thousand, and unfurnished with fire arms, their vicinity occasions no alarm, nor are any attempts made to conquer them. They claim entire independence, and their capital, St. Paul, is reported to be a neat, well built, opulent town; the mines

of the republick being exceedingly rich; but as the people manifest great jealousy of strangers, little is known about them.

Amazonia.

The interior country towards the west is very little known to Europeans. This vast tract joining Terra Firma on the north, skirted by Brasil and the Atlantick Ocean on the east, and hemmed in by the river Plata towards the south, derives its name from a supposed nation of female warriors dwelling on the banks of the river Amazon, but which more modern researches have never discovered. The river itself, the banks of which are the only part of the country known, has its source in the province of Quito, and after a winding course of very great extent, pours its waters into the Atlantick Ocean. The face of the country is beautifully diversified with herbage and fruit trees, bearing both bloom and fruit at the same time. The commodities of this region are iron-wood, log-wood, and several other dying woods and drugs, maize, cassava root, tobacco, cotton, sugar, and all the articles of commerce found in Brasil. The natives are of good stature, have handsome features, long black hair, and copper complexions; they are said to have a taste for the imitative arts. The sides of the river are inhabited by distinct nations governed by their caziques.

Guiana.

The last country to be spoken of on the coast of this very extensive peninsula is the province of Guiana, properly a part of Terra Firma, bounded by the river Oroonoko and the Atlantick on the north and east, by the country of Amazonia on the south, and the provinces of Granada and New Andalusia on the west; it extends about twelve hundred miles from east to west, and nearly six hundred from north to south. The Portuguese, French, and Dutch, have all settlements on the coast; but the natives are possessed of the whole interior country; they are divided into a variety of nations, and are reported by some to have the same manners, customs, and religion, which were established in Peru, and to possess a number of handsome, populous, and flourishing cities; while others represent them as mere Nomades. The coast is low, marshy, and subject to inundations; hence the air is unwholesome. One of the most unhealthy parts of the country, that from the river of the Amazons to Cape d'Orange, containing two hundred and forty miles of coasts, very dangerous of

approach, is possessed by the Americans solely, who from the marshiness of the soil frequently place their cabins in trees. The next district is called French Guiana, or Old Cayenne, stretching two hundred miles along the coast. The chief settlement of the French is on the island of Cayenne at the entrance of the river of the same name. This island is not deemed more than sixteen or eighteen leagues round; it is well wooded and watered, admirably cultivated, and extremely fertile in sugar, tobacco, maize, herbage, and the necessaries of life. There is a town of about two hundred houses occupied by mechanics and tradesmen. The French first settled on this island in the year sixteen hundred and thirty-five: on their afterwards abandoning it the English took possession of it, but only to make way for the French, who were in sixteen hundred and forty-six expelled by the Dutch; and these last were in the same year driven out by the French, nor have the attempts of the former to recover their loss succeeded. There are in Cayenne several populous villages, some of which are inhabited by Jews, who by the trade they carry on add considerably to the wealth of the island. In Dutch Guiana, the last division of this coast, extending from the mouth of the river Morani, in six degrees twenty minutes north latitude, to the ninth degree on the river Oroonoko, the chief settlement is at Surinam, which name extends to the river on which the town stands, and to the country for above an hundred miles round. The Dutch have partly remedied the unwholesomeness of the air by cutting passages through the woods. There are seven or eight inland towns, whose population, wealth, and trade, manifest the flourishing state of the colony; its trade consists principally in sugar, tobacco, gums, dying drugs, and woods, coffee, cotton, flax, and skins: the government is composed of a governour and council.

The History of the British colonies in America.

The history of the Spanish and Portuguese settlements on the continent of America being thus completed, that of the British settlements next presents itself for review. The discovery of the north-east part of the American continent was made by Sebastian Cabot, the son of a Venetian pilot, but a subject and native of England; who in the year fourteen hundred and ninety-seven, was employed by Henry the seventh to attempt the discovery of a north-west passage to China

but for a century after the discovery the English neither navigated the coast, nor attempted to plant colonies. Sir Walter Raleigh first projected this. Having in fifteen hundred and eighty-four obtained a patent from the queen, he formed an association of his friends, by which he was enabled to fit out two ships; yet the principal object of the adventurers was the discovery of gold and silver mines. The two vessels having arrived at the island of Roanoke, near the mouth of the river Albemarle, in North Carolina, took formal possession of it in the queen's name; and opening an intercourse with the natives of that island and the neighbouring continent met with great civilities from them. They found them in some degree civilized, and not entirely destitute of either arts, government, or religion: their arms were bows, arrows, clubs, and wicker shields; they displayed considerable ingenuity in forming their canoes from the solid trunks of trees, which they excavated by means of fire; but a most remarkable circumstance was, that they had the use of various and not inelegant characters, which were impressed on the bare backs of the natives, denoting the province, tribe, or prince, to which they belonged. By barter of trinkets the English obtained from these people furs, pearls, coral, sassafras, cedar, and a little tobacco, which sold so well at home as to lead to another adventure. The next year a squadron of seven vessels was sent under Sir Richard Grenville, who, after some previous measures not calculated to secure the favour of the natives of the continent, left a small colony on the island of Roanoke; but these suffered so much from the treachery of the natives and other causes, that the remainder of them took the opportunity of Sir Francis Drake's arrival to totally evacuate the settlement. Two more attempts at establishing a settlement failed, and all expeditions to America were laid aside until the year sixteen hundred and two, when one sailed under captains Gilbert and Gesnold, and made the coast of New England in the forty second degree of latitude, but found circumstances so little favourable to a settlement, that they contented themselves with taking on board a cargo and returning home. Other expeditions took place, but no permanent settlement, until in sixteen hundred and six, two companies were formed in England to establish settlements on the coast of Virginia, and three

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vessels freighted with settlers sailed to the coast of America, and after a little previous fighting came to an agreement with the Americans on what is now called James River, and obtained their consent to the planting of a colony fifty miles from the entrance of it, which from the villainy of the company's servants and the treachery of the natives suffered several reverses. At last the company having obtained a patent with more ample powers, prevailed on the lord Delawar to accept of the government of the new colony. The vigour of his administration brought the affairs of the settlement into a promising situation, and in sixteen hundred and eleven they were still more ameliorated by a marriage between captain Rotf, one of the settlers, and the daughter of Powhatoc, an American chief. The tobacco plant was now cultivated with success, but lord Delawar, who had been obliged to return to England for the recovery of his

A. D. 1618. health, dying on his passage back, Mr. Argol, who had been entrusted with the government, was removed, as attending more to new discoveries than to the improvement of the possessions already gained, and Sir George Yardley afterwards succeeding to it, remodelled the government, to bring the form of it nearer to the British

A. D. 1620. constitution. The colony now flourished, and became populous, when, on what specifick provocation does not appear, a conspiracy was formed among the natives for a general massacre of the English the complete execution of which was prevented by a timely discovery yet between three and four hundred English were slain. The colonists were not backward in their revenge, and a supply of arms and ammunition from home enabled them to drive the savages from all the cultivated parts of the province. Policy, however, dictated their re-admission, but the unfavourable disposition of the colonists towards them led to another conspiracy, by which all the English who fell in their way were cut off; so that on the accession of Charles the first, the English property in Virginia was so reduced, that he dissolved the company, and ordered all patents and processes to be issued in his name. The assembly, which consisted of representatives from the towns and counties was continued, and the government was vested in a governour and twelve counsellors with the assembly. Maryland was now separated from Virginia, and vested in George

Calvert, lord Baltimore. Of Virginia itself, Sir John Harvey was appointed the first governour, and on his being displaced, Sir William Berkeley. In his time an American chief of extraordinary abilities, named Oppecancanough, was encouraged by the internal dissentions of the colony to attack the out-settlements and massacre many English, but was himself slain. Berkeley was for some time able faithfully to retain Virginia in its loyalty; but the interest of trade operating on the other side, he was at length obliged to retire to his own estate, and leave the colony to the power of the rebel parliament; but the people afterwards requested him to resume the command, which, on their promising to be firm in their loyalty, he did, and held it until after the Restoration; when many of the republican soldiers being banished, nearly ruined the colony by propagating in it their anarchical principles, and the servants formed a conspiracy for murdering their masters and seizing the province; but the execution of it was happily changed for the capital punishment of four of the ringleaders. Discontents arising in the colony, partly on account of the imposts laid on their produce, and partly on that of grants made by the crown of lands which the colonists conceived were their property, an open rebellion was at length raised, under the conduct of one Bacon, and from it very extensive mischief ensued to the province; but Sir William Berkeley manifested a noble firmness, and the rebel leader being cut off by death, tranquillity was restored. A. D. 1677. Sir William Berkeley having resolved to visit England, where he died, his deputy, Mr. Herbert Jeffries, concluded a formal treaty of peace with the Americans, since which time these savages have never had it in their power to give any material disturbance to the colonists. Lord Colepepper being appointed governour, did not arrive in Virginia until the year sixteen hundred and seventy-nine. Armed with great powers, his proceedings were arbitrary and self-interested; yet, where his own power or purse was not concerned, he attended to the interest of the colony. Lord Howard of Effingham was his successor, and proved not only more arbitrary than lord Colepepper, but a much less usefull governour; but his lieutenant governour, who came into the province after he left it, did every thing in his power for the benefit of it. During his administration the college of

A. D. 1683.

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Williamsburg was erected. Lord Effingham on his removal was succeeded by Sir Simon Andras; who, contrary, it is suggested, to general expectation proved a good governour; but a whig administration coming in, he was recalled to make way for Nicholson, who founded the town of Williamsburg. The ministry of England now conceived the plan of permitting a lieutenant-governour only to reside in Virginia, on eight hundred a year of the salary, and making a job of the other twelve, which with the title of governour, they granted as a sinecure to somebody for whom they deemed it their interest to provide, and the earl of Orkney was the first who obtained it, the lieutenant-governours under whom appeared to have been well chosen. Thirty-six years did lord Orkney hold his appointment. Neither does the remainder of the history of this colony, until the æra of the peace of Paris, present any thing but a detail of the successive governours, not sufficiently interesting to justify the detention of the reader.

A. D. 1692.

A. D. 1704.

Newfoundland.

Although it seemed proper to notice the first English settlement on the continent of America in point of time before any other, it will tend to perspicuity to mention the other provinces in topographical order, as they present themselves on the coast, beginning from the north. The island of Newfoundland, discovered by Sebastian Cabot in fourteen hundred and ninety-seven, is of a triangular form, and about three hundred leagues in circuit; divided by a narrow channel from Nova Scotia on the south; and from the coast of Labrador on the north. In the reign of Henry the eighth the trade to this country was found so advantageous, that an expedition was fitted out for making a settlement in it; but it ended so unhappily that all thoughts of prosecuting the discovery were for some years laid aside in England; in consequence of which, the French and the Portuguese obtained a footing on the island, and carried on a profitable trade in fish and furs. But in the reign of Elizabeth, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, with a small squadron, took possession of the island for the crown of England. After James had succeeded to this, a company headed by three sages of the law, the lord chief baron, the king's-serjeant, and the solicitor-general, obtained a grant of the part of the island lying between the Capes Bonavista, and St.

Mary's; whither a colony was sent under the direction of Mr. Guy, who landing in Conception Bay, established an intercourse with the natives, and by his humanity and courtesy gained their esteem. After a residence of two years, Guy returned to England, but left some of his people to proceed with the colony. Fishing, however, formed the great object of the English, and so flourishing did the cod fishery soon become, that when captain Whitburn, in sixteen hundred and fourteen, carried out a commission from the Admiralty, to enquire into the abuses and disorders committed among the fishermen, there were preferred to him complaints from no fewer than one hundred and seventy masters of English vessels. Next year Dr. Vaughan, having made a purchase from the patentees, settled a little colony at Cambriol in the southernmost part of the island. About the same time Sir George Calvert obtained a grant, and soon found the colony he sent in so flourishing a state, that he repaired to it with his family, built a fine house and strong fort at Ferryland, and resided many years on the island. In the space of some years, settlements were made in fifteen different parts of the island, the chief of which were St. John's Town, Ferryland, and Kittavitty, notwithstanding the molestation from the French settled at Placentia. The historical events of the island since the settlement of the colonies are too trivial for notice in a work concise as this. Hostilities have more than once taken place between the English and French; but the whole country, together with Cape Breton, was ceded to the former at the peace of seventeen hundred and sixty-three, except the small island of Miquelon. The coast of Newfoundland is furnished with a variety of fine bays and harbours; the heads of which approach each other so nearly as to form a very easy communication between different parts of the country. The climate is intensely hot in summer, and equally cold in winter. The inhabitants import half the necessaries of subsistence; fish, venison, and wild-fowl excepted, every thing is procured from the mother country or the American continent. The island is filled with mountains and forests; every species of timber grows in great perfection; deer, hares, foxes, bears, and other quadrupeds valuable for their skins, are found here in great abundance; as are also fowl for food and game, and the sea is

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plentifully stocked with different kinds of fish, besides cod, the staple commodity of the country. The native Americans are a gentle tractable people, easily gained by good usage; they paint their bodies, but are sometimes clothed with furs; they are short, but robust, their chests are full, and their faces broad to deformity. Pilfering, cunning, and duplicity, are the characteristicks of these islanders; nor are they ever ashamed of detection, or provoked to resent the necessity of restitution. They are reported to be more rational in their religious ideas, than the natives of the continent, and to have carried some arts, especially the potter's, to great perfection, and to manifest great capacity for improvement.

Nova Scotia.

The next British province to the southward is Nova Scotia, so named by Sir William Alexander, secretary to James the first; but by the French called Acadia; it is bounded by the ocean to the east; by the same ocean and the bay of Fundy to the south; by the river St. Lawrence on the north-east and north-west; and by part of Canada and New England on the west and south-west. The coast extends for the space of between five and six hundred miles, mostly uninhabited and barren. In sixteen hundred and eighteen, Mr. Argol, governour of James-town, considering Nova Scotia as an appendage of Virginia, captured and removed two French colonies which he found on it; and four years after, Sir William Alexander having obtained a patent to plant colonies in the country, freighted a ship with passengers who settled there, but were dispossessed in compliance with a treaty which Charles the first concluded with the French king. It afterwards changed hands repeatedly together with Canada, but was confirmed to the French by the treaty of Breda; but these restless people becoming troublesome neighbours to the English, an armament fitted out by the province of New England reduced it to obedience to the British crown; but this conquest was again given up at the peace of Ryswick. In seventeen hundred and nine, however, another expedition sailed from Boston, and having reduced the French colony, changed the name of Port Royal into that of Annapolis Royal; and by the treaty of Utrecht, the province of Nova Scotia, with all its dependencies, was ceded in perpetuity to Great Britain. This province abounds with small rivers, of which the

entrance affords anchorage for the largest vessels. Almost every part of it yields corn, fruit, and pulse, and it produces excellent timber for masts and ship-building; here is abundance of feathered game, and also multitudes of otters, beavers, and other quadrupeds valuable for their furs. Annapolis is the capital, with an harbour which will contain a thousand vessels at anchor. The largest island in the gulph of St. Lawrence is Cape Breton.

New England.

When James the second bestowed the government of New England on Sir Edmund Andrews, his commission expressed the limits of his authority; the colonies of Massachuset's Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. In this country the summer is warm but short, the winters long and severe: the piercing winds which then blow are supposed to be occasioned by frozen lakes that lie to the north-west of New England. Towards the sea the land is generally low, and frequently marshy, but in the interior it rises into hills. Round Massachuset's Bay the soil is black, and rich as in any part of Britain; yet the upper parts are less fertile, but produce sufficient corn and vegetables for the subsistence of the inhabitants. Seven of the rivers are navigable, and all abound in fish; Connecticut River in particular may be sailed up a great way by the largest vessels; it rises in the northern frontier of the province, and runs directly south through the district of its name, until after a course of two hundred miles it falls into the sea between the towns of Saybrook and Line. The number of large and populous towns in the province may be ascribed to the convenience of its rivers: besides the fish these produce, cod abounds on the coast, and being cured, constitutes a very considerable article in the trade of the province. No country produces a greater abundance or variety of wild fowl, and the quadrupeds most necessary to human subsistence and convenience are no less plentifull. Of wild quadrupeds there is a great variety, among which the moose-deer attracts great notice. Its body is about the size of a bull's; his neck resembles that of a stag; his tail is somewhat longer, and his flesh gratefull. Of this species there are two varieties; the black, which is sometimes ten feet high, a quarter of its venison weighing two hundred weight, and the light-coloured moose, called by the natives wampoose, which is smaller, more

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gregarious, and more frequently found. New England produces a great variety of excellent timber, but its oak is very subject to decay. The first English settlement made in this province was in sixteen hundred and two, by captain Gesnold, who planted a colony at a place which he named Martha's Vineyard. Here he traded with the savages, finding them an hospitable inoffensive people; this commerce proved so profitable that the merchants who had engaged in the adventure, obtained from James the first a grant authorizing them to plant any where between thirty-eight and forty-five degrees of north latitude. The country thus described was then called North Virginia, and the grantees held it under the title of the Council of Plymouth; but considerable difficulties presented themselves against the attempt to plant it: nor was a colony permanently established, until a congregation of Puritans, who had retired to Leyden, obtained leave of James the first to settle in his American dominions, and using the sanction of Gesnold's patent, sailed with two ships from

A. D. 1620.

Plymouth, having one hundred and twenty adventurers, and thirty seamen aboard. Though they pretended that when they arrived on the American coast, they purchased a right of settlement of a cazique and other principal natives of the country, at the spot on which they at length fixed, they had a slight skirmish with the natives ere they landed their stores. Here they erected a storehouse, and gave their settlement the name of New Plymouth. After having struggled with the inclemency of the winter, which carried off half the settlers, with the danger of famine, and some hostilities with the natives, the planters thought that still, with a little assistance from England, they should be able to accomplish their undertaking. But though more colonists were sent by one of the original Plymouth adventurers, yet bringing no provision with them, they rather augmented than diminished the distress of the settlement; and being members of the church of England, there seems to have existed between them and the sectaries whom they joined, no very good understanding; but at length Weston, who had sent them, separated from the colony, and produced a patent for establishing a settlement on part of Massachuset's Bay. The original colony at New Plymouth flourished from the year sixteen hundred and twenty-three, a number of sectaries

and republicans from England continually resorting thither; and in seven years time, so much had the plantation thriven, that they purchased from the patentees the whole property, and affected to erect themselves into a republick under the sanction of a patent from the crown of England. The thriving condition of the New England colony, rendering the British government still more desirous of sending planters to settle on Massachuset's Bay, an unsuccessfull attempt was made, and the people of New Plymouth carried off by force the remnant of the settlers, under a charge that they were teaching the savages the use of fire arms. The Puritans in England now thought they might make a settlement of their own body on the spot where this attempt had miscarried, and patents were obtained from both the king and the council of New Plymouth, by which a number of sectaries were incorporated under the name of the governour and company of Massachuset's Bay, and enabled to hold the lands granted them of his majesty in common socage, paying to the king one-fifth of all the gold and silver ore found within their limits; but these pious men who had left their own country to avoid, as they said, persecution for their religious opinions, and though one of the clauses of the company's charter provided for liberty of conscience, accepted assistance from the colony of New Plymouth, on the express condition of excluding all forms of worship but that of the Puritans: and because two brothers of the name of Browne, who were themselves patentees, joined with some others in the worship of the church of England, they sent them back to that country; such is the hypocrisy of fanaticism! A few years after another body of emigrants formed two new settlements, one at Charlestown and the other at A. D. 1630. Dorchester; but those who had fixed on the former spot, perceiving the superiority of that on which Boston now stands, removed thither, and founded the present metropolis of New England. It suits not the brevity of this compilation to relate in detail the foundation of all the towns in this province: suffice it therefore to say, that by successive emigrations from the mother country (which had they been still more numerous, would only have relieved it from a generation which were its greatest pests) all the region as far as Hudson's River, together with Long Island became occupied by colonists: who,

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though they seem fairly to have purchased some land of the natives, did not all entertain just ideas of the right these had to their own country, and often treated them with the most impolitick barbarity; for which a furious revenge was taken, whenever opportunity offered; while the French endeavoured to disturb the new colonists in their settlements, and the Dutch at New York looked with a jealous eye upon them. In the mean time hostilities commenced with an American nation, named Pequots; and the war was lamentably marked by the cruelty of those who called themselves Christians, and the poor and provoked native people exterminated. A religious controversy, which arose to a great height, concerning the covenant of works and the covenant of grace, in which the females took a peculiarly active part, disturbed the peace, and menaced almost the ruin of the colony; but the Antinomians being in the minority, on some severities being exercised on them, a party purchased Rhode Island, which from the goodness of its situation, soon became over-stocked with inhabitants. These religious disputes, however, induced the governours of New England to think, that a little real science would be found usefull in the colony, and a college was erected about six miles from Boston, which from its principal benefactor, received the name of Harward, and caused the town in which it stands to have the denomination of Cambridge. In the year sixteen hundred and forty-two, fifty towns and villages were built in New England, and all the works of husbandry were pursued, and the commercial part of the inhabitants exported great quantities of fish to Portugal, the Straits, and other places. They exported to the West India islands, bread, beef, oil, and lumber of all kinds, and carried on a great trade in ship-building. The intrigues which the French pursued to stimulate the savages against the English colonists induced these to unite all the four governments which they had formed into one political confederacy, and articles of confederation were adopted, under which two commissioners elected by the general court of each settlement were to meet annually, and determine on all matters of general concernment which might arise. Though when all the dread of the savages and the French was removed, that anarchical spirit, which some of the colonists brought over with them

from Britain, manifested itself in civil dissentions, new England in general flourished, and attention was now paid to the conversion of the savages to Christianity, the endeavours made for which were attended with considerable success, and several towns were formed of the converts, a society for the propagation of the gospel being established; and the native Christians were reckoned at about five thousand, which was then supposed to be one-fourth of all the natives, who then remained in the province; so greatly had their number been reduced by the sword and the small-pox. In sixteen hundred and forty-eight, the New England congregations agreed to the confession published by the assembly of divines at Westminster; yet did they most bitterly persecute one another. Some baptists who had left their presbyterian brethren, were by these advocates for liberty of conscience fined, scourged, and imprisoned; and in sixteen hundred and fifty-six, the same spirit raged still more violently against the quakers. Not only was a penalty laid on all masters of ships who brought one into the country, but it was enacted, that the quakers who entered it, should be severely whipt and kept to hard labour; but this not being deemed sufficient, a law was added, that if a quaker returned to New England, after having been banished, he should, if a man, lose one ear, and be kept to hard labour, until he could be embarked at his own cost; for the second offence, he was to lose the other ear, and be kept in the house of correction. If a woman, to be severely whipped, and kept as aforesaid. For the third offence the delinquent's tongue was to be bored with a hot iron, and then he was to be kept in the house of correction until shipped off at his own cost: after which four quakers, of which one was a female, were actually hanged for returning from transportation. But after the restoration, by order of Charles the second, Secretary Morrice, himself a presbyterian, sent over an injunction to stop all proceedings against quakers; but it was obeyed only as far as related to capital punishments. Yet this diabolical spirit restrained in one line broke out in another, and innocent people were burned for witchcraft; and one Mrs. Greenwich, at Hertford, was hanged for having lain with the devil. Still it should be remembered in honour of the people of New England, that among them originated that

society for the propagation of the gospel among the savages, which at this time obtained through the patronage of Lord Clarendon a new charter, and the justly celebrated Mr. Boyle was elected its first governour. In New England the prosecution against the baptists and quakers broke out afresh, and a savage king of the Wampanoags, named Philip, encouraged by the French, and not without provocation from the English, commenced a war which ended only with his own death, and in which the colonists had no reason to boast of their triumphs. Towards the end of the reign of Charles the second, Quo Warrantos were brought against the four governments of New England, and their charters were resigned to the crown; still the people being irritated by the favour which one of their governours, named Dudley, showed to the church of England, deposed and sent him prisoner to the mother country. Just at which period Sir Edward Andros came over as governour, and affairs continued in tranquillity until near the revolution: after which, king William being petitioned for the restoration of the charter of New England, granted a new one, by which the nomination of the governour, lieutenant governour, secretary, and the officers of the admiralty was reserved to the crown; and the command of the militia vested in the governour. All judges, justices, and sheriffs, were to be appointed by the governour, with the advice and consent of the council; and all new laws, when approved by the governour, were to be transmitted to England, and to be void if disallowed in three years. So necessary did even William see it was to place a curb on the anarchical spirit of the people of New England, whose history to the peace of Utrecht contains a recurrence of similar dissatisfaction with their governour, similar cruelties of superstition, and similar wars with the savages and the French; nor did there occur any thing from thence to the peace of Paris, which belongs not to the history of the mother country, of importance sufficient to render it requisite to swell the present abridgment with the detail of it.

Boston, the capital of New England, is populous and well built, as well as well fortified. The approach to it by sea is narrow, but it is said, that its basin will contain five hundred sail. The people of the province are some of the greatest traders on the continent of

America. Some rich iron mines of a most excellent kind and temper are said to have been discovered in the country. As to religion, even before the middle of the last century, though there were in Massachuset's Bay more than one hundred and thirty congregations of Christians altogether, there were not among them above three or four of the Church of England. The police of New England with regard to morals is spoken of in terms of high admiration; every town of fifty families is obliged to maintain a school for reading and writing, and of one hundred families a grammar school for the instruction of youth. Adultery, blasphemy, striking or cursing a parent are said to be punished with death. Great care is taken of the morals of the savages, and to prevent drunkenness and profane swearing. New England is divided into twelve counties, and in it there are in all sixty-one market towns.

New York.

An English captain named Hudson, is said to have been the first discoverer of the province of New York, and he, about the year sixteen hundred and eight, sold it to the Dutch; and these, overlooking the defect of their title, proceeded to colonize it. The whole extent of the province from north to south is three hundred and thirteen miles, lying between forty and forty-five degrees of north latitude: from east to west the extent is various. To the province of New York belong Long Island, which is about one hundred and twenty miles from east to west, but at a medium no more than ten broad; and Staten Island, about twenty miles in length and six in breadth. The province contains four incorporated towns, which send representatives to the general assembly; the city of New York, that of Albany, the town of West Chester, and that of Schenectady: the climate and soil are greatly superior even to those of New England. The history of New York during the time the Dutch held it, contains little material. The court of England having protested against their settling in the country, the English attacked and destroyed their plantations, nor could they on application to James the first obtain more than leave to build some cottages, for the accommodation of their ships which might touch there. From this licence, however, they took occasion to enlarge their settlements; but just previous to the declaration of the Dutch war in the reign of

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Charles the second, Sir Robert Car was sent from England with a considerable armament, and orders to dispossess the Dutch of the country. This commission he discharged, and the first English governour of New York was colonel Nicholls, who seems to have been a prudent minister. In sixteen hundred and seventy-two, the Dutch regained temporary possession of the province, which was restored by the treaty of peace. Nicholls was succeeded in his government by Sir Edmund Andros, and Andros by colonel Dungan; who, though he had conducted himself with great integrity in it, being by his being a papist disqualified from continuing in his government after the revolution, was superseded by colonel Benjamin Fletcher, ere whose arrival the French having excited the Hurons to attack the colony, an expedition was attempted against Quebeck; but proving unsuccessfull, the French in their turn invaded the province of New York, murdered the inhabitants of Schenectady and burnt the town. For Fletcher not being arrived the colony was in a state of anarchy, when a colonel Lesley and a Mr. Milbourn very properly assumed the conduct of affairs, but as improperly refused to resign it on the governour's arrival; when even entering into hostilities against him, they were both taken and hanged by him for high treason. During Fletcher's government the French governour of Canada invaded Albany, but was compelled to retreat with loss. To Fletcher succeeded colonel Slaughter, and his successor was Joseph Dudley. In sixteen hundred and ninety-seven the earl of Bellamont was named to the joint governments of New York and New England; and on his decease lord Cornbury, eldest son to the earl of Clarendon, succeeded to that of New York, and by the vigour of his administration put the affairs of the colony into excellent order. During his government at the solicitation of five kings of the friendly savages, an expedition against Canada was undertaken, but failed. For the sequel great numbers of Palatines and other German protestants arrived, and were settled on both sides of Hudson's River; by which the colony was strengthened. When lord Cornbury was recalled from his government, he was succeeded by lord Lovelace; but he surviving his appointment but a few months, his duties were performed by the lieutenant governour; and in seventeen hundred

and ten, a new governour, colonel Hunter, brought with him near three thousand Palatines; but who, from the small allotment of land granted them, were driven to remove into Pennsylvania. The trade of New York consists in wheat, flour, skins, whale-oil, iron, and copper. The industry of the inhabitants is great, and the soil of the province in fertility almost exceeds belief.

New Jersey.

New York and New Jersey were formerly under the same governour; the latter as well as the first is said to have been discovered by captain Hudson, but no English settled there for a long time after the discovery. The first European colony was one of Swedes, who built three towns on the south side of the river Delaware, Christina, Gottembourg, and Elsimbourg; but about the year sixteen hundred and sixty-five all their possessions were sold to the Dutch, who had planted nearly all the north parts of New Jersey by the name of Nova Belgia; but when in the reign of Charles the second it was reduced by the English, the duke of York, to whom it had been granted by his brother, granted the government of it to lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, and afterwards by deed conveyed to the last the eastern division of it. New Jersey, according to the common maps, is bounded on the south-east by Delaware Bay, and by that river on the south and west; and on the north by New York and uncivilized regions, and by the Atlantick Ocean on the east: its length from north to south is about one hundred and forty miles, and about eighty where broadest. East Jersey is divided into the four counties, of Monmouth, Middlesex, Essex, and Bergen; the chief towns are Shrewsbury, and Elizabeth town; the last of which lies on the coast opposite to Staten Island. Perth Amboy, the chief town of Middlesex county, stands near the mouth of Delaware River, where it discharges itself into the mouth of Sandy Hook Bay; which is never frozen, and will contain five hundred ships. Brunswick is another town in this province, where a college for the instruction of youth was established in seventeen hundred and forty-six by governour Belcher. Of West Jersey the capital is Burlington, situate in an island in Delaware River; the town is well built, and lies favourably for trade: their commodious situation has enabled the inhabitants of New Jersey to make a great progress in both trade

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and agriculture. The province was said to raise more wheat than any other of the colonies; and from it, tobacco, fish, oil, grain, and other provisions are sent to Spain, Portugal, and the Canaries.

Pennsylvania.

Immediately behind the Jerseys, to the west lies the province of Pennsylvania, bounded on the north by the five nations and New York, on the west by the Alighaney Mountains, and on the south by Maryland; its extent in length is about three hundred and thirty miles, and two hundred in breadth; the air is sweet, serene, and clear; the great heat of the summer months is alleviated by cool breezes; and during the frosts of winter the air is dry, and agreeable. This province produces not only great abundance of grain, but likewise flax, and hemp, and supports cattle of many species. The largest river in Pennsylvania is the Delaware, which rises in the country of the five nations, and is navigable for near an hundred and fifty miles from its mouth; the land on its banks is excellent, and it affords great plenty of the fish common to the climate, and especially sturgeon. The Susquahannah and the Schoolkill or Sculkill, or Schuilkill, flow from the same country; the former discharging itself into Chesapeak Bay in Maryland, and the latter into the Delaware near *Philadelphia*. By these rivers and numerous large and deep bays and creeks this province is adapted to foreign commerce, while smaller streams afford great assistance to various manufactories. Philadelphia, the capital, lies in thirty-nine degrees, fifty-seven minutes north latitude, and in seventy-five, thirteen, west longitude from Greenwich. Mr. Penn himself formed the plan of it. It is seated between the river Delaware and Schoolkill, and is oblong, with sides extending almost two miles nearly from river to river, while the ends present fronts of a mile each; the streets are wide, straight, and exactly parallel to each other: the high street, which runs the whole length of the city, is an hundred feet wide; in the centre of the city is a square of ten acres, and several canals from each river run into the town: the market is the finest on the continent of America, and the quay is two hundred feet square, to which vessels of four or five hundred tons can lay their broadsides close. Philadelphia contains about four thousand houses. In Pennsylvania are six counties, Philadelphia, Chester, Newcastle, Kent, Sussex, and Lancaster.

Manufactures are carried on in this province to a considerable extent. In German-town large quantities of thread stockings are wove. The linen cloth manufacture has been introduced by some Irish. Beaver hats are manufactured in great perfection. The other commodities are cordage, linseed oil, starch, myrtle-wax, spermaceti candles, soap, and earthen-ware. The Dutch were the first planters here as well as at New York, and reduced a colony of Finlanders who came and settled near the freshes of the Delaware; but when the Dutch were driven from New York by the English, this province also became subject to the latter people. Sir William Penn, the admiral, having obtained from Charles the second the promise of a grant of this country, some years after his death, his son, who A. D. 1680. had joined the sect of the quakers, obtained a patent, and sent over a body of settlers, to secure whom from attacks from the natives, he appointed commissioners to treat with them for the land, and in the course of the same year going himself with a large number of people, he entered into a treaty with the natives, and purchased of them the lands comprised in his grant. The constitution which he formed in England needed some alteration in the charter to render it practicable; and Mr. Penn, on a dispute with lord Baltimore, the proprietor of Maryland, returned to England, and the persons to whose hands the government of Pennsylvania was in the interim committed, seem to have had some bickerings with the provincial assembly. After the revolution, Penn's attachment to the abdicated monarch brought on him some suspicions, and the crown appointed a governour of the province, yet not without Penn's consent; under him the assembly too nearly copied the practices of the English long parliament. Nor when Penn returned himself did they perfectly agree with him, though at length they presented to him a charter of privileges which he ratified, and which continued to be the rule of government in Pennsylvania. The promiscuous admission to office given by this to every denomination of sectaries, probably suggested the great relaxation in the laws of uniformity which has been introduced into this country, and which, whatever it may do on the other side of the Atlantick, has here afforded lamentable encouragement to many who unworthily retain the name of Christians, to undermine the faith and

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blaspheme the objects of the belief of humbler and sincerer disciples of the gospel. This charter of privileges, however, did not put an end to disputes either in the province or between this and the proprietor; which too were increased by the intemperance of even the quakers, whose enlarged principles of toleration did not prevent their persecuting one of their preachers named Keith, on his conforming with the church of England. Notwithstanding these differences, Pennsylvania after the revolution was filled with colonists from various parts of the world, who proved industrious and peaceable, and who have been in general governed by an individual appointed by the proprietor, while this last has resided in England. Nor did any thing else occur in this province, ere the period at which this abridgment closes, of sufficient importance to justify detaining the reader with it; yet he might think, one sect in this country, though few in number, too singular to be passed by unnoticed. Though by some called Dumplers, their true name is said to be Dunkards. They dwell at Ephrata, a frontier town in the county of Lancaster, and owe their origin to a German hermit, whose simplicity of life and piety of conversation induced many of his countrymen to join him. These divide their time between labour and devotion, throwing all their gains into a common stock; their females are cloistered in a separate part of the town, never seeing the men but at publick worship (though that indeed seems often enough), and when it is necessary on matters of publick œconomy. Their garb is very simple, and their diet vegetables, and this abstinence emaciating their bodies, and the men permitting their beards to grow, they bear a ghastly appearance. They sleep on benches, having wooden blocks for pillows; attend publick worship twice a day, and as often every night; yet the Dunkards are represented as far from extravagant. They are industrious and ingenious mechanicks and artists, and by their different manufactures the publick stock is well supplied.

Maryland.

Maryland is bounded on the west by high mountains; on the east by Chesapeak Bay and the Northern Sea; on the north by Delaware Bay; and by Patowmack River to the south; and lies between thirty-seven degrees fifty seconds, and forty degrees north: though originally considered as part of Virginia, it was by Charles the first

granted to lord Baltimore, and called Maryland in honour of the queen. The first colony consisting of about two hundred persons, chiefly, if not all, papists, of which persuasion was the patentee himself, was sent out in sixteen hundred and thirty-three, and landing in A. D. 1631. Virginia in the beginning of the following year, they received all possible assistance from the governour of that province; whence proceeding to Maryland, under the command of Lionel Calvert, brother of the first, who had died since the grant, and uncle of the then present proprietor, Cecil, Lord Baltimore, the governour, pitched on a town called Yoamaco, in a river to which he gave the name of St. George, as a good spot for a settlement, and prevailed on the natives to make an amicable cession of it to him, when he changed its name to that of St. Mary's, and made such a display of the force he had with him, as struck the natives with awe, and they brought him corn and other provisions in exchange for knives, beads, and other trifles. To the great advantage of obtaining land already cleared, lord Baltimore added by being unsparing in the money which he advanced for improvements, and very rapid was the increase of his colony by the accession of new settlers from the mother country. The province was now divided into counties, of which five lay on the west side of the Bay of Chesapeak, and five on the east. The former were named St. Mary's, Charles Calvert, Ann Arundel, and Baltimore, to which was afterwards added Prince George County. The latter shires were Somerset, Dorchester, Talbot, Cecil, and Kent. The seat of government was placed at St. Mary's; and the government itself settled on a plan resembling, as nearly as possible, that of England; but many alterations were afterwards made. Though during the rebellion at home, the reigning powers took the government of this colony into their own hands, on the restoration lord Baltimore obtained a confirmation of his grant, and sent over his son, A. D. 1662. Mr. Charles Calvert, as governour. So moderate and impartial was this gentleman's administration, that the population of the colony rapidly increased, and even nations of the natives submitted to his authority. The tolerating spirit of lord Baltimore, suited not with that of James the second, in whose reign a resolution was taken to deprive him of the right of nominating a governour of Maryland,

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and even after the revolution the same design was pursued, and at length carried into execution, and the nomination thenceforth was vested in the crown. King William appointed Sir Edmund Andros governour; and when the act of parliament was passed concerning the succession of declared papists to paternal inheritances, the Baltimore family renounced the errours of popery. Sir Edmund Andros was succeeded in the government by colonel Nicholson; who observing that hitherto the people of the province had seen no other divines of the church of England than itinerant preachers of very loose morals, obtained the appointment of a commissary by the bishop of London, who sent Dr. Thomas Bray to inspect the ecclesiastical affairs of the province; and by his care the counties were divided into parishes, and one half of these were provided with ministers; many chapels were erected, and the people were furnished with protestant books of practical devotion; by which judicious step the religion of the church of England soon gained the chief sway in the province. Without detaining the reader with a tedious list of the successive governours, the produce of this colony shall next be mentioned. This consisted in tobacco and considerable quantities of pork, the woods containing vast herds of wild swine. The people of the uplands raise vast quantities of hemp and flax; the mountains contain a great deal of iron ore, the oak of the country is fit for staves and building of small craft. St. Mary's was the original county and seat of government, but the county court was afterwards removed to Annapolis. The parishes of Bristol and Piscataway are the chief in Charles county. Neither does Prince George county contain any thing remarkable. In Calvert county are the parishes of Harrington, Warrington, and Calverton. In Anne county stands Annapolis, deemed the capital of the province; and Baltimore county contains a straggling parish of the same name. These counties are all on the west side of the bay. On the east lie Cecil, Kent, and Talbot counties, in the last of which stands the port of Williamstadt, as well as the parishes of St. Michael and Bolingbroke. The chief town of Dorchester county is Dorchester. Somerset county has in it a parish of the same name, and some new counties have been laid out.

North and South Carolina.

Carolina has been claimed by the English, the Spanish, and the French; but the first, who considered it as theirs from the discovery of Cabot, secured the possession of it. The length of it between the thirty-first and the thirty-sixth degrees of north latitude, is upwards of four hundred miles, and its breadth near three hundred. The climate and soil of both Carolinas differ not much from those of Virginia. The uncleared part of the country is one forest, the different species of trees indicating the quality of the soil; where the oak, the walnut, and the hickery grow, the ground is extremely fertile, and the pine-barren is the worst, though it bear the pine, and other trees productive in tar and turpentine. Rice is the staple commodity of the country, and it is said, that the worst of the land in it is favourable to the growth of indigo. Carolina is for eighty miles from the sea a very gently rising plain, in which is to be found neither hill, rock, or scarcely a pebble. In the back country wheat grows well, and yields extraordinarily. There are in the two provinces ten navigable rivers, and a great number of tributary ones, all abounding in fish. Maize is in great plenty; of pulse and garden roots great is the variety, as well as of fruits. The horses of the country are good, the sheep prolifick, and the swine very numerous. Among the wild beasts are buffaloes, elks, fallow-deer, bears, jackalls, panthers, and tigers. The birds are much the same as those of Virginia, and numerous are the varieties of fish. The exports of these provinces are rice, indigo, pitch, tar, turpentine, tobacco, peas, beef, pork, tallow, hides, deer-skins, furs, cotton, horses, wheat, Indian-corn, potatoes, honey, bees-wax, myrtle-wax, gums, snake-root, masts and planks. North Carolina, after running about three hundred miles along the coast, is separated from South Carolina by an imaginary line drawn in thirty-four degrees north latitude from the Atlantick to the Apalachian Mountains; it is divided into fourteen townships. The principal rivers are Ronoac, or Albemarle River, the Neuse, and Clarendon River; on the last is seated Wilmington, the largest town in the province; on the Neuse, Neuborn, and Edenton on the river Albemarle. The bounds of South Carolina are much reduced from their original extent, Georgia being taken off to the southward; its extent on the Atlantick is more than an

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hundred miles, and west from the sea upwards of two hundred. Charlestown, the finest in North America for size, beauty, and trade, is the metropolis, and lies between two navigable rivers, Ashley and Cowper rivers; its harbour is good, but the bar prevents the entrance of large ships. On the island of Port Royal, on the borders of Georgia, lies the town of Beaufort, an hundred miles from Charlestown, having a deep and capacious harbour; it was in the year sixteen hundred and sixty-three, that the Earl of Clarendon, then lord-chancellor, Lord Ashley, afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury, and six other persons of quality, obtained a charter from Charles the second, for settling and governing the province of Carolina, and they employed Mr. Locke to frame a constitution, and compile a body of laws for their new state. The proprietors acted as the sovereign, each lord in his turn for the rest. They instituted three classes of nobility, viz. barons, caziques, answering to our earls, and landgraves, analogous to our dukes. These formed the upper house of what they called the parliament; and the lower consisted of representatives from the several counties and towns. Charlestown was first built, and the general toleration established in the colony, drew thither a number of sectaries; but it was not long before contentions broke out between the members of the church of England, and the various dissenters, which impeded the improvement of the settlement. The people also fell into disputes with the proprietors, and provoking the savages by a course of injustice and violence brought on two wars; in both of which, however, they were victorious, and subdued almost all the nations within their own bounds on this side the Apalachian Mountains. These distractions and wars so reduced the colony, that it was deemed requisite to put the province by act of

A. D. 1728. parliament under the immediate care of the crown, and the proprietors accepted a remuneration of about twenty-four thousand pounds, except Lord Granville, who kept his eighth part of the property, comprehending nearly half of North Carolina, where it borders on Virginia. Soon after this, peace being firmly established with all the neighbouring American nations, the province began to obtain wealth, and its trade to increase rapidly.

Georgia. This state received its name from the late king, George the second.

Situated to the south of Carolina, it is on the north separated from it by the river Savannah; it has the Atlantick Ocean on the east; the river St. John dividing it from East Florida on the south; and on the west it is bounded by Louisiana. The land of this province near the coast is woody and low, but at the distance of twenty-five miles it begins to rise into hills, which at length terminate in the Apalachian Mountains. Such is the length of the river Savannah, that canoes may sail up it six hundred miles. This province abounds in cattle, and has a multitude of wild beasts and birds, and venomous reptiles, which generally are the same as those in Carolina. Rice, corn, and indigo, may be deemed its principal commodities for trade. The capital, Savannah, lies in thirty-one degrees thirty-eight minutes north latitude, and is extremely well situated for trade, and ships of three hundred tons may lie within six yards of the town. About four miles from the river are the villages of Highgate and Hampstead, the inhabitants of which apply themselves chiefly to gardening, for the supply of the town of Savannah. Two hundred miles further up the river, which is so far navigable for large boats, lies Augusta, which is commodiously situate for the trade with the Creeks, Chickesaws, and Cherokees, who bring to market a considerable number of skins. It was the observation made of numbers of people in the mother country being without employment that suggested the settlement of Georgia in the year seventeen hundred and thirty-two, to several noblemen and gentlemen, who obtained for that purpose from the crown a very extensive charter; and one of the trustees, James Oglethorpe, esquire, arrived in America in January, seventeen hundred and thirty-three, with an hundred and fourteen persons to form the new colony. The situation of Savannah was selected, and a treaty of alliance and trade was concluded with the lower Creeks. Mr. Oglethorpe having established the form of government on which the patentees had agreed, returned to England; from whence proceeded in the same year to Georgia two embarkations, chiefly of Saltzburghers, who built the town of Ebenezer. The next year a grant from parliament of twenty thousand pounds, and considerable private benefactions afforded the means of sending numerous settlers, yet consisting chiefly of persecuted German protes-

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tants. In seventeen hundred and thirty-five some Highlanders emigrated, and built the town since called New Inverness; and in the following February, Mr. Oglethorpe himself again arrived with four hundred and seventy colonists, who settled on the island of St. Simon, which with the adjacent islands they obtained by treaty from the Creeks, and built the town of Frederica. In seventeen hundred and thirty-seven the trustees received another parliamentary grant of twenty thousand pounds, on which they made another embarkation of German protestants. At length, however, such a spirit of discontent insinuated itself into the colony, that the people of it quarrelled with one another, and with their magistrates, and the greater part of them left Georgia for other colonies; on which the trustees in seventeen hundred and fifty-two surrendered their charter to the crown, and the government of the province was put on the same footing as that of Carolina; since which it has been gradually increasing in population.

Hudson's Bay.

Hudson's Bay extends from fifty-one to sixty-five degrees north latitude, and from seventy-eight to ninety-five degrees west longitude. The whole length may be about six hundred miles. Hudson's Straits are said to be an hundred and twenty leagues in length. At the mouth of them lies Resolution Island, and within them the islands Charles, Salisbury, and Nottingham; and Mansfield Island is at the mouth of the bay. The south coast of these straits is named Terra de Labrador, and is by some called New Britain. The inland parts of this country are little known, and inhabited by the Esquimaux, the least civilized and most intractable people of America. The Danes first dicovered them, but no settlement has been made in their country. They have no settled habitation; neither have any towns or villages been found among them. It is said, that the nation is sufficiently numerous to bring thirty thousand fighting men into the field; but though treacherous and untameable, they are very cowardly. The French have several times built forts and little towns on their frontiers to entice them to trade, but without success. The only commodities they have for trade are furs, in exchange for which they will take knives, scissars, kettles, and other hardware; but if a ship suffer them to come near in too great numbers, they

attempt to master the crew, and plunder the vessel. On the side of Hudson's Straits to the north of Labrador, lies the north main, bounded on the east by Davis's Straits; on the north by Baffin's Bay; and on the west by a nameless strait. The whole of this land stretching from the sixty-second to the seventy-fifth degree of north latitude, is by some called James's Island; but all agree in acknowledging their ignorance of the inland parts. The Cumberland Islands lie in the bay of that name. Davis's Straits, so denominated from the discoverer of them, extend to the seventy-fifth degree of latitude, where they communicate with Baffin's Bay. The country lying round this bay goes by the name of Prince William's Land, and of it little more is known. To the south of Prince William's Land lies New North Wales, which has on its south New Denmark, and on its west another unknown land. The mouth of Wager Straits lies in latitude sixty-five degrees twenty-three minutes; they are full of islands and rocks, and the land on both sides is high. Several islands lie on the coast of Labrador, and the country from Button's Bay, southward and eastward as far as Labrador, for three hundred miles, is called New South Wales; it is bounded on the south by Canada, and on the west by an extensive country, the inhabitants of which trade with the English. The settlements here made are only forts, or houses chiefly calculated to protect the residents from the inclemency of the weather; and they are placed near the mouths of the rivers most proper for the trade. At the mouth of Churchill River, is built Prince of Wales's Fort, the most northern on the west part of Hudson's Bay, where the company keep about twenty-eight men. The river is navigable for one hundred and fifty leagues. As to the soil of the countries bordering on Hudson's Bay, it is in general very barren; but the trade is reported to be very advantageous. The first discovery of Hudson's Bay was made by the adventurers from different parts of Europe, who endeavoured to discover a north-west passage to China. For this purpose, after the middle of the sixteenth century, Sir Martin Forbisher made three voyages, but his only discovery was the strait which bears his name. Other adventurers followed; and early in the seventeenth century, Henry Hudson is said to have discovered as far as eighty degrees

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twenty-three minutes, but being in a second voyage embayed, and obliged to winter there, he died in the following spring. In the same year, Sir Thomas Button passed Hudson's Straits, and sailing westward discovered the land to which he gave the name of New Wales. He wintered at Port Nelson, and from him the bay was called Button's Bay. Baffin afterwards attempted further discoveries, but was stopped at the eightieth degree, and from him also a bay took its name. After the restoration, prince Rupert and some associates, sent out a commander, named Guilam, who landed in the east of Hudson's Bay at the mouth of a river, which he named Rupert's River, and there built Charles Fort, and began a fur trade with the natives; which bore so good an appearance, that a charter was granted to the adventurers. Against the validity of this grant the French pleaded the right of pre-occupancy, and long was the dispute continued with various success. In sixteen hundred and eighty-six the English company were in possession of the five settlements of Albany River, Haye's Island, Rupert River, Fort Nelson, and New Severn, where they carried on a very profitable trade, generally bringing home annually from Albany River alone three thousand five hundred beavers. In the possession of these places, however, they were afterwards much interrupted by the attacks of the French; nor were they secured in their claim to them until the peace of Utrecht, by which Hudson's Straits and Bay were ceded for ever to the crown of Great Britain.

Canada.

It is indisputable that Cabot discovered the extensive region denominated Canada. In the sixteenth century one Aubert, a ship master of Dieppe, carried over to France some of the natives of Canada; but the discovery was not prosecuted with any effect until near the middle of the century, when Jaques Cartier, a native of St. Malo, being sent by the French king with three ships, entered the gulf of St. Lawrence, to which he gave that name, passed by the isle of Anticosti, and in his progress up the river St. Lawrence, came to the island now called that of Orleans, to which he gave the name of the isle of Bacchus, on account of the number of vines which he found on it. Returning to St. Croix where he had left two of his ships, he there passed an hard winter, and on his return to France met with

little recompense for what he had suffered. Four years after this another expedition was sent out under a M. de Roberval, and Cartier was appointed to the command of a fort built in the gulf of St. Lawrence; but Roberval perishing in a subsequent expedition, the few French settlers left in Canada, remained without supplies from Europe. An attempt at a settlement to the south-east of Cape Breton in the reign of Henry the fourth miscarried; yet private adventurers traded to the river St. Lawrence. In the last year of the sixteenth century, Chauvin, a commander in the French navy, obtained a patent of lieutenant-general of Canada, and made two successfull voyages to Tadoussac after furs. The office of governour of Canada, subsequently passed through several hands, and a company was formed for the Canadian trade, which had in the beginning of the seventeenth century become very considerable in furs. In the mean time, Samuel Champlain, who had been a captain in the navy, and was a man of courage and ability, and had gone to the river St. Lawrence with the Sieur de Monts, one of the governours, having examined the most promising places in Nova Scotia and the river St. Lawrence, at last decided on Quebec for a settlement. Here, he in sixteen hundred and eight, built some barracks for his people, and cleared a little ground; and, after returning to France, re-visited his colony in sixteen hundred and ten, and found it healthy and prosperous. Having given to the Hurons, in whose country Quebec was situated, some effectual assistance against their enemies, he returned a second time to Europe, when Canada received the name of New France, of which the prince of Condé during the regency that followed the death of Henry the fourth assumed the title of viceroy, and appointed Champlain his lieutenant; in which post he was continued by the marshall Montmorenci, who succeeded the prince of Condé. But from the neglect of the merchant adventurers all Champlain's exertions proved of little avail towards increasing the colony at Quebec, for in the year sixteen hundred and twenty-one it did not consist of more than fifty persons; yet an establishment had been formed at Trois Rivières, and a brisk trade was carried on at Tadoussac. But about eight years after this, Cardinal Richlieu resolved to take the colony out of the hands of the French protestants,

and altering the constitution of it put it into the hands of an hundred partners, particularly forbidding the admission of any Huguenots into the country; though the bulk of this company consisted of rich merchants, the cardinal himself and other persons of high distinction were at the head of it, and augmented its number to an hundred and seven. Two years after this Quebec was taken by the English, but it was restored again at the peace of St. Germains. The most strenuous efforts of the jesuits to gain a footing among the natives availed but little for some time, and though the most extraordinary zeal was manifested by some French nuns who went to America, little progress seems to have been made in inculcating the mercifull precepts of Christianity into the minds of the Hurons; while the civil distractions of France caused the colony to be much neglected. But when it was nearly ruined, a spirit for the conversion of the savages again rose among the great in France, and thirty-five persons of quality associated to settle at Montreal; and in sixteen hundred and forty this design was put in execution; nor was the work of conversion slow. The example of a Huron chief brought vast numbers of that nation to the profession of Christianity; and afterwards many of the Algonquins became converts. But the more converts the missionaries made amongst the Hurons and Algonquins, the weaker became the French colony; and a peace with the Iroquois was concluded, though they spared not to reproach Montmagny, the then governour of Canada, for some parts of his conduct. This peace, however, lasted not long, though the war renewed with the Iroquois did not prevent the attempts of the French ecclesiasticks at conversion among other nations. The history of the province affords nothing else for some years from this period, but wars with the Iroquois, and consequent distress of the most lamentable kind, with instances of the extreme cruelty of the savages in tormenting and relentlessly exterminating their enemies. This last they practised on the Erics situated on the lake which still bears their name, utterly destroying the whole tribe. There is, however, one circumstance meriting notice on account of the light it throws on the derivation of an American nation denominated Sieux; it is that the similarity of their persons, manners, and doctrines, to that of the Asiatick Tartars scarcely leaves

room to doubt of their being descended from that people. The little profit derived from it induced the company of Canada at length to surrender their whole property in the settlement to the French king, who put the government of it on a new footing; but the regulations thus introduced excited so much discord, that the Canadians became some of the most litigious people in the world. In sixteen hundred and sixty-five the colony received from Old France a reinforcement not much inferior to itself, and in a very few years after this, through the attention of the court of France, the affairs of Canada assumed a promising aspect. New emigrants arrived, and habits of application and labour became fashionable, but the fashion was of no continuance, and much disturbance was introduced into the colony by the misconduct of a new governour, the count Frotenac; yet in his time the French discovered the river Mississippi; but so low was A. D. 1688. still the population in Canada, that all the souls in the settlement did not amount to nine thousand. After some years of war with the savages who were supported by the English at New York, it was resolved to reduce these last; but the formers of this determination were not able to carry it into execution; on the contrary, some New England forces laid siege to Quebec, where they too met with a disgracefull repulse. During the war between Louis the fourteenth and queen Anne, the French endeavoured to establish an opinion that all the English settlements in North America were encroachments on their property, and to support their unwarrantable claims, they forged boundaries, changed the names of places, and even falsified charts; yet at the conclusion of the peace of Utrecht, all Canada could not produce many more than five thousand men fit to carry arms. In seventeen hundred and fifty-nine a powerfull British squadron under admiral Saunders, with a body of land forces commanded by brigadier general Wolfe, attacked Quebec, and after the defeat of the French army (in which engagement the English commander fell), the place surrendered, and was with the whole province of Canada ceded to Great Britain by the peace of Paris.

The tract of country to which the name of Louisiana was given by the French, who seem at first principally to have explored it, is very extensive, being, according to the limits which they have assigned it, Louisiana.

bounded on the north by Canada, on the east by the provinces of New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Carolina, and Georgia; on the south by the gulf of Mexico; and on the west by Mexico, or New Spain, and countries unknown inhabited by the native Americans. La Sale, a Frenchman, who first undertook to explore this country, obtained from the French minister in sixteen hundred and eighty-four permission and assistance to fit out an expedition for the discovery of the mouth of the river Mississippi; but this main object of his expedition he never accomplished, being assassinated by some of his own people, whom his violent and absurd conduct had irritated. He had however landed in the Bay of St. Bernard to the west of the mouth of the Mississippi, where he found another river, the natives of the land about which were called Clamcoets, a cruel and perfidious people who went almost naked, and dwelt in one of the finest climates in the world, wholesome, serene, and the land naturally fruitfull. The river on which La Sale here built a fort was called that of Cows, from the number of those animals there grazing; the country abounded too with dear and goats; it is said too, that lions and tygers were found there, with a great many bears and wolves: small game swarms all over the country, and the rivers and lakes abound with fish; the plains are beautifully diversified with wood and water; but the rivers are pestered with sharks, alligators, and their plains with rattle snakes; the woods contain most of the trees known in Europe with many others, and are fruitfull in vines, nuts of various kinds; mulberries, figs, and bananas, grow every where. In this country it seldom rains, and the natives are furnished with plenty of salt, by evaporation on the sea shore, and the banks of the lakes. The people who lie next to the Clamcoets, but higher up, are little known to Europeans, but are reported to be much of the same disposition and manners. About an hundred leagues to the north, live the Assinais, who are a more civilized people, who cultivate the earth, and breed great numbers of horses. They take the field on horseback, armed with bows and arrows, and bucklers of bull's hides; but they are a small nation. It was in an excursion to the north-east in which he passed through a country extremely pleasant, and some parts of it populous, that La Sale was murdered. After whose death the

fort he had built was taken by the savages, and all the Europeans left in it were massacred. But a party of seven led by Joutel, to whom ere his assassination, La Sale had given the command of his encampment, made their way through some delightfull regions inhabited by various tribes, who uniformly received and forwarded them with great hospitality until they reached the river of the Illinois, proceeding up which they at length arrived at the French settlements in A. D. 1687. Canada. Though La Sale had not discovered the mouth of the Mississippi, which however was known to the Spaniards and the A. D. 1708. English, the French ministry still thought of searching after it, and accordingly eleven years after sent two ships which succeeded in discovering it. And Ibberville, the commander of one of them, proceeding up the river, landed at the village of Bayagoulas, where he was by the chief of the savages conducted into the inside of a most curious temple, the entrance of which was ornamented with figures of beasts and birds; in the middle of this temple were placed upright two faggots lighted, and the idol of Bayagoulas was represented in several parts of the temple in black and red. The village itself consisted of seven hundred cabins, each sheltering one family, and with the light admitted only by the door and a hole in the middle of the roof. Ibberville built a fort between the mouths of the Mississippi and the Mobille. In April seventeen hundred, all the buildings which the French had in Louisiana consisted of a few straggling houses belonging to some French Canadians, the fort at the mouth of the Mississippi, and another which was their head quarters, on the Bay of Biloxi. An attempt to work a copper mine which they discovered proved unsuccessfull; and the next year Ibberville removed the people from the post of Biloxi to another settlement he had commenced on the Mobille; but afterwards the head quarters of the colony were removed to the Isle Dauphin. To this languishing colony at length a regulating commissary was sent, and on his report the officers for a regular government appointed; after this, attempts were made to open a trade with Mexico, but to this the Spaniards would not consent. In the year seventeen hundred and twelve, no more than twenty-four French families were settled in Louisiana; all the commerce of the province was then carried on about the Mobille and

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the Isle Dauphin, and consisted in lumber and peltry. The Sieur Crozat, who had obtained an exclusive privilege of the commerce of Louisiana for sixteen years, reaping from it only care and vexation resigned his patent, and thus opened the way to the Mississippi scheme of Mr. Law, noticed in another part of this work. But to make the history of this portion of America more complete, it should be remarked, that about the time when Columbus assured the eastern hemisphere of the existence of America, two or three nations of savages in the northern peninsula of it, had spread desolation over their neighbours. The Chicachas carried their ravages above five hundred miles from their own country, even into New Mexico, exterminating the natives of the countries which they subdued. In the same manner acted the Iroquois towards the east of Louisiana, and their example was followed by the Padoucas, and other people towards the west; besides the sword two diseases, the small-pox and defluctions from the lungs, swept away unnumbered multitudes of the natives. The Americans dwelling to the east of Louisiana were the first known to the Europeans. The Apalaches, the most eastern of all the Louisianian savages, are a portion of the great nation of the same name inhabiting the Apalachean Mountains. To the north of the Apalaches are the Alibamons. To the east of these lie the Caouitan. To the north of the Alibamons are the Abeikas. To the east of these lie the Cherokees, who were the bulwark of the Apalachean savages against the Iroquois, and by a confederacy which they formed against them, they for a long time preserved their country in a state of tranquillity; but as the reader will feel but small interest in perusing little better than a list of tribes spread over this extensive tract, it seems better to specify only those which have made themselves known either by war or other intercourse to the European colonies. Such are the Chactaws or flat-heads, between the Mobile and Pensacola River, the most numerous of all the savage tribes in Louisiana, being able to muster twenty-five thousand warriors; the distance is about sixty leagues from these to the Chicachas on the north, who are a warlike people, well made and with regular features. The Natches, according to tradition, were formerly by far the most respectable people in all North America;

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they occupied all the territory from Manchac, within fifty leagues of the sea to the river Ouabache; but before their destruction by the French in the year seventeen hundred and thirty-one, they were greatly reduced. Some of their princely families are yet to be found dispersed in different parts of America, and are known by their preserving the eternal fire and other customs peculiar to the nation. The Illinois dwell on the banks of the river which carries their name, a people very peaceably inclined, yet not deficient in courage, and who are divided into several tribes. With the Renards, a nation to the north of these, the French were at war for forty years. The Sioux lie next, but at a distance of almost three hundred miles of uninhabited country; they are a people dispersed through a great number of villages on both sides of the Mississippi. The inhabitants on the west of that river consisted of many uncivilized nations, unconnected with the European colonists, some of whom, as well as many of those already mentioned, occasionally devour their prisoners. Great part of the country of Louisiana was ceded to Great Britain at the peace of Paris. In that which France retained was the Isle of Orleans at the mouth of the river Mississippi, a very beautifull and fertile spot, on which the French had a considerable city named New Orleans, the capital of Louisiana. There is reason to believe, that all the nations of this country were originally the same people; the natives of it are for the most part very well made. Paternal authority is greatly reverenced among them, and they in general are long-lived. The fathers educate the boys, and the mothers the girls; and the care and wisdom with which they train their youth is admirable. All the nations of Louisiana have an idea of a Supreme Being, whom they call the Grand Spirit. The Natches believed in an omnipotent God, the maker of all things, having under him inferior spirits, who are constantly in his presence, and ready to execute his commands. They believe that God first formed a little man of clay, and breathed on his work, which then walked about, grew up, and became a perfect man.

The West India Islands.

The American islands, generally denominated the West Indies, are the only part of the globe the history of which it yet remains to detail. They lie in the great gulf formed by the two portions of the

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new continent, and a review of them will best be made by commencing with the chain at the northern entrance of it called the Bahama or Lucayan Islands. These lie between the twenty-first and twenty-eighth degrees of north latitude, and between seventy-two and eighty-one of west longitude. These were discovered by Columbus, who landed in the island now called New Providence, but which he named St. Salvador; yet he made no settlement on this or any other of the Bahamas. They became afterwards a shelter for pirates, and the resort of a lawless set, who lived on the plunder of shipwrecks, until after the middle of the seventeenth century, when six of the proprietors of Carolina, obtained from Charles the second, a grant of New Providence, and the Bahama Isles in general, lying between twenty-two and twenty-seven degrees north latitude, and a governour and some
A. D. 1672. settlers were sent thither; but from the unprincipled character of those who peopled the islands, after the destruction of the original natives by the Spaniards and pirates, they continued for some years a scene of disorder, until at length the Spaniards, to prevent the island from being brought into order by the English, invaded New Providence, and destroyed the stock and cottages of the inhabitants. After this the Bahamas, which are supposed to amount in the whole to near five hundred, but most of them mere rocks, were abandoned; yet before the revolution, the great importance of their situation, induced several English, both from Europe and America, to remove to them, and their proprietors again exercised their right of appointing a governour. About ten years after, Providence and the adjacent islands contained nearly a thousand inhabitants. Some tobacco was planted, a sugar-mill was set up, and other improvements were made; but in seventeen hundred and eight, the French and Spaniards surprized and destroyed the fort, burnt the town of Nassau, and carried off the governour and the blacks. The pirates at length making the Bahama Islands their resort, captain Woodes Rogers
A. D. 1718. being appointed governour, sailed with force sufficient to subdue them; having accomplished which, he regulated the government by nominating a council of twelve. A few years increased the inhabitants to the number of fifteen hundred; the town of Nassau was then

rebuilt, and plantations laid out. Soon after which the neighbouring island of Eleuthera was likewise settled; and that of Harbour Island, where the plantations soon became more considerable, and a larger fort was erected. Cat Island was also settled. Captain Rogers also defeated a force of two thousand Spaniards. At length returning to England, he was succeeded by captain Fitzwilliams, and ever since this settlement of them these islands have been gradually improving. The largest of them is that from which they take their name, being fifty miles in length, and in some places sixteen broad; it is well-watered, the soil is fertile, and the air serene, but very thinly inhabited; its original products, guaiacum, sarsaparilla, and red wood, are said to have been all destroyed by the Spaniards. Besides those already mentioned, many of these islands are represented as large and well-watered, but on account of the dangers of the navigation little known.

The Antilles. Cuba.

Partly behind the Bahama Islands lie the greater Antilles, consisting of Cuba, Hispaniola, Porto Rico, and Jamaica, with some small islands near them. The first of these which presents itself in coming from the north-west is Cuba, seated between nineteen degrees forty-eight minutes north latitude, and the tropic of cancer; and between seventy-four degrees nineteen minutes, and eighty-four degrees forty-two minutes west longitude; its length is six hundred and sixty miles, but its broadest part is only thirty-six leagues, and its general breadth not more than eighteen. A ridge of mountains runs almost through the island, in which are mines of copper; while, from the gold dust found in the rivers, it is conjectured that there are veins of gold in the mountains; these mountains are shaded with trees, and abundance of rivulets descend from them. No place has better harbours than Cuba, of which the chief are that of the Havannah at the north-west, and that of St. Jago, at the south-east end of the island. This island has a most fertile soil, and produces all the commodities raised in the West Indies. The animals formerly brought into it by the Spaniards, have so multiplied, that numbers run wild in the woods. The shores abound with sea-fowl; here are likewise large turtle, and numerous alligators, in the sea and rivers;

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but the cultivation of Cuba is so neglected by the Spaniards, that with all its natural advantages, the exports from it are very inconsiderable. Many are the towns on it, and St. Jago, though it retain the name of the capital, is greatly inferior to the Havannah. This last city was built by Diego de Velasquez, who landed here in the beginning of the sixteenth century with three hundred Spaniards, and with the assistance of Bartholomew de las Casas, subdued the island. Its port is said to be one of the finest in the world, in it a thousand sail may ride commodiously, sheltered from every wind; and it is so deep that the largest vessels may anchor at a short distance from the shore. The entrance is by a channel about three quarters of a mile long, but so narrow that only one ship can pass it at a time. The buildings of the city are of stone, very handsome, but not lofty; the streets are narrow but clean. The churches are magnificent and richly adorned. The city is strongly fortified, its forts pouring their fire from an hundred and twenty pieces of cannon. This is the port of rendezvous for all the Spanish fleets in returning from America to Spain. The bay of St. Jago being well sheltered by small islands, forms a commodious harbour. The town is situated at the end of it, has a cathedral, and is a bishop's see. In the conquest of this island by the Spaniards, the natives were treated with the utmost cruelty; some millions of them, it is said, were cut off; and at last orders arrived from Spain, to exterminate the few remains of its original inhabitants. So that the history of Cuba contains a relation of the most horrid massacres, the Spaniards having tortured the natives to compel them to discover the gold mines which they supposed the island contained. Ere the middle of the sixteenth century the Havannah was so inconsiderable a place, that a single French pirate ship laid it under contribution; and many other predatory invasions were made during the century, after the discovery of the island. After the succession of a prince of the House of Bourbon to the crown of Spain, the importance of the Havannah was better estimated, and every effort was made to render it impregnable; and so well was it fortified, that two attacks made on it by the English failed; but when the court of Spain joined France in the

A. D. 1741.
A. D. 1747.

war against Great Britain in seventeen hundred and sixty-one, the Havannah was reduced by a strong British armament, yet was restored by the peace of Paris.

Hispaniola, or St. Domingo.

Columbus in his first voyage, in fourteen hundred and ninety-two, discovered the island to which he gave the name of Espagniola, and it afterwards acquired that of St. Domingo, from a city which he founded, and so denominated in honour of his father. This is, except Cuba, the largest of the Antilles, being about four hundred and twenty-six miles from east to west, and almost one hundred and twenty-four, where broadest, from north to south; it lies to the east of Cuba, and to the west of Porto Rico, from which it is separated by a narrow channel; the climate is extremely hot, yet the air is not deemed unwholesome. This island is considered as the most fruitfull and pleasant in the West Indies: it produces more beautifull and better flavoured fruit than most of the other islands. In the Savannahs are innumerable herds of black cattle running wild, beside horses and hogs. There is scarcely a country on the globe better watered both by brooks and navigable rivers, which are full of fish, and the coast abounds with turtle. In the sands of the rivers gold dust is found, and it had, when first discovered, mines of gold, silver, and copper. The possession of St. Domingo is divided between the Spaniards and the French, but the latter out-number the former. The pirates, who have by the English been improperly termed buccaneers, but whom the French denominated flibustiers, from the Dutch fly-boats in which they made their first expeditions (buccaneers being the men who in America hunt wild cattle, some of whom joining the pirates gave occasion for applying the name to the whole body), having met with success in their attacks on the Spanish ships and trade, were by this both encouraged and enabled to land on the continent of New Spain and Terra Firma. As their number and boldness increased, they took some of the strongest fortresses and most opulent cities, and even that of Panama by storm. In the places they took their booty was incredible, and their cruelties scarcely to be described. Another party of these pirates passing the straits of Magellan, rendered the whole coast of Peru, Chili, and Mexico, one scene of desolation. Some others of them finding that

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the Spaniards were so weak in Hispaniola, that they nearly deserted a considerable part of the island, made it a place of rendezvous. They who hunted the wild cattle, found the deserts, which the Spanish tyranny had produced abounding with animals. To these adventurers were added French of the lesser Antilles, who considered it to be a promising speculation to pass to this island, and settle there as planters and merchants. These different sorts of people lived on very good terms with each other, and though frequently dislodged by the Spaniards, they still returned with fresh recruits, so that the former with difficulty retained one part of the island. The French court connived at the progress of these people, though it disavowed their proceedings whenever complained of; but when those of the nation in Hispaniola, became numerous and wealthy, it owned them as subjects, and sent them a governour, and regular forces for their defence. Piracy was still connived at, while the trade in hides increased, and the plantations were extended. At length at the peace of Ryswic, the Spaniards ceded to the French the north-western, the best and most fertile part of the island, and it became one of the principal settlements of the French in the West Indies; it begins at a large plain called Bahaia, on the north side of the island, about thirty miles east of Cape François, extending along the coast from thence to the west, reaching on the south side as far as Cape Morgan, being two hundred leagues and more in circuit. Great is the encouragement which this settlement has received from France, and in seventeen hundred and twenty-six, it had no less than thirty thousand white inhabitants, and an hundred thousand negroes. Sixty thousand hogsheads of sugar, of five hundred weight each, were made, and indigo to half the value. There were also exported large quantities of cotton, cacao, and ginger. Since which coffee has been raised to a very great amount, and the products have increased astonishingly. The principal places in the island are Cape François, by the French called the Cape by way of eminence, and containing about eight thousand whites and blacks; but this town was destroyed in the reign of king William by the conjoined English and Spaniards; and since it was rebuilt, it is neither walled or paled in. Leogane on the west side is a good port, and a place of

considerable trade. There are besides two other towns considerable for their trade, Petit Guaves at the west end of the island, and Port Louis on the south-west part. And off the part of it possessed by the French, are the two following smaller islands, St. Louis, on which, though scarcely half a mile long and not a quarter over, the French have a fort. Vache Island, so called from the black cattle grazing on it, is about three leagues from Hispaniola, and five or six miles long. The soil is very good, and it has two or three tolerable ports. The capital city belonging to the Spaniards in Hispaniola is St. Domingo; which is large and well built, with several magnificent structures. The principal part of the little trade which the Spaniards have in this island is carried on from this port, which is well secured by its fortifications. The town is nearly a square, delightfully situated between a navigable river on the west, the ocean on the south, and a fine fruitfull country on the north and east. Round Hispaniola lie many islands smaller than those already mentioned, particularly on the western and northern coasts, but most of them uninhabitable.

Porto Rico.

About eighteen leagues from the north-east point of Hispaniola, lies the island of Porto Rico, so called from its chief town, though at first named St. John by its discoverer, Columbus. It is in length from east to west forty leagues, and about twenty where broadest. The ground is diversified with woods, vallies, and plains, and is extremely fertile. The island abounds with fine meadows, and a ridge of mountains runs through it from east to west; and it is well watered with springs and rivers. The manchaneel-tree, the most fatal of all poisonous trees, flourishes here more than in any other place; its trunk is never more than two feet in circumference, and is covered with a smooth tender bark; its flowers have a red cast, its fruit is of the colour of a peach, and has a stone in the middle; the leaves resemble those of a laurel, and contain a milky fluid: in the heat of the day it is dangerous to handle them, and still more dangerous to repose under the tree. In the sap, which they gain by incision, the natives steep the points of their arrows, and then the slightest wound from them proves mortal; yet salt immediately applied is an antidote to this venom; though a weapon thus

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impregnated has been found to retain its poisonous quality for above an hundred years. Though all the inhabitants of this island have of late been computed at less than five thousand, the Aborigines are said to have amounted to four or five hundred thousand, who were extirpated by the Spaniards. The city of St. John, which is both the seat of the governour, and the see of a bishop, is seated on a peninsula on the north side of the island, and is defended by a citadel and castle. At the latter end of the sixteenth century, Sir Francis Drake burnt the ships in the harbour of St. John, and three years after the town was reduced by the earl of Cumberland, who was prevented from keeping possession of it by the sickness of his troops; and in sixteen hundred and fifteen it was taken and plundered by the Dutch; but they were unable to reduce the castle.

Jamaica.

The only island of the greater Antilles remaining to be noticed is Jamaica, named by Columbus St. Jago, and the largest of all the British West India islands; it extends from seventy-five degrees twenty minutes west longitude to seventy-eight degrees; and from seventeen degrees fifty minutes to eighteen degrees forty-two north latitude; being about one hundred and sixty miles in its greatest length, and seventy in its greatest breadth. It lies twenty-four leagues south of Cuba, and thirty west of Hispaniola. The whole island is intersected by a continued ridge of hills from east to west; which are called the Blue Mountains, on each side of which are chains of smaller, which gradually sink as they approach the shore. Most of the savannahs lie near the south side of the island. The principal harbours of Jamaica are Port Royal and Kingston, both fine and capacious; Old Harbour, Carlisle, and Montego Bays, Bluefields; Port Morant at the east end of the island, and Port Negril at the west. None of the rivers in this island are navigable, and several of them have cataracts fifty or sixty feet high. At a distance from the rivers water is in dry years very scarce, so that many cattle die in driving to it. There are several hot, and many salt springs; from the lakes formed by these, and ponds made by sea-water, large quantities of salt are produced by exhalation. The mountains, and indeed the greater part of the island, are covered with wood, which never lose their verdure, but are gay in every

season: nor are the beauties of the better cultivated vallies inferior to these, while they produce the richest plants, as the sugar-cane, ginger, and pimento, and orange, and lemon trees in abundance. Fruit is too common to be much regarded; on the way-side the citron, the star-apple, the guava, and mamee grow wild; but there are various disagreeable circumstances to counterbalance these advantages. The rivers are infested by the alligator, and the fens nourish the guana and galliwasp, with numberless snakes and other noxious animals, and the scorching heat of the sun renders the island sickly. After the intolerable heat of the day the dews within land are so copious, that in a morning the water drops from the leaves, as if it had rained. The months of July, August, and September, are deemed the hurricane months. It lightens almost every night, and when thunder does occur, it is very terrifick. In February and March the inhabitants look for earthquakes, which have at times been as dreadfull as any recorded in history. It is said, that not one-third of the island is inhabited; neither, though there are plantations round it, are there any at any great distance from the sea; and even these are so partially cultivated, that the greater part of the ground is overrun with wood; yet is the soil in some places so fertile, that one acre has been known to yield several hogsheads of sugar. This island produces no kind of European corn, but yields maize, Guinea corn, a variety of peas, but none resembling ours, and roots. The sugar-plant is formed of a long cane, divided by joints, two, three, four, or five inches asunder, and about six feet high, the sprouts and leaves at the top rising so as to make it near eight feet in all. The body seldom exceeds an inch in diameter; the colour of its top is pure grass green, but the cane itself, when ripe, is yellowish; it is covered with a thin bark, and within is of a white spongy substance full of juice, which the slaves and others suck. Of this juice are made sugar, rum, and molasses. The season for planting the canes is from August to the beginning of December; but they are in the ground a year and a half ere they arrive at maturity. Three, four, or five, shoot from one root. The cane-tops make very good food for cattle; but the canes themselves are carried to the mill. The pimento, which produces the allspice, is as thick as a man's thigh,

rises straight above thirty feet, and is covered with a very smooth skin of a grey colour; its branches shoot out on every side, having the ends of their twigs set with leaves of several sizes, the largest four or five inches long, and two or three broad in the middle, whence they decrease, both extremes ending in a point. The ends of the twigs are branched into bunches of flowers: the flowers have a bunch of crowned berries, the crown consisting of four small leaves, at first greenish; but when ripe black, smooth, and shining, containing in a moist green aromatick pulp, two large seeds separated by a membrane. The body of the cacao, or chocolate-nut tree, is commonly about four inches in diameter, and about twelve feet high; the nuts grow in pods, each having three, four, or five kernels, of about the size of chesnuts: these pods grow only out of the body, or great limbs and boughs, and there are blossoms with young and ripe fruit on the tree at the same time. The wild cinnamon is about twenty or thirty feet high, having many branches and depending twigs; there is an outward bark and an inward; the former is thin, and of a light grey colour and aromatick taste, resembling that of cloves; the ends of the twigs bear bunches of scarlet or purple flowers, which on falling off are succeeded by clusters of rough green berries of the size of a large pea: all the parts of this tree, when fresh, are very hot and aromatick, but the inward bark is what is chiefly used. Coffee is now much cultivated here; it is a large shrub, with leaves of a dark green; the berries grow in great clusters, and one bush will produce several pounds. Here are also cabbage, cedar, and mastic trees, the mahogany, cotton, and machineel, with a great number of others. The island abounds likewise with dyer's woods. Numerous are the drugs and medicinal herbs. Ginger shoots forth blades from its root not unlike those of wheat; the stalk seldom exceeds eighteen inches in height; when the plant is dug up, the roots are races of ginger, which are scraped clean, and dried in the sun. Here are all sorts of fowl, wild and tame; and the rivers and bays abound with fish. The common substitutes for bread here are plantains, yams, and cassava; the first are of an oblong form, grow in clusters on the tree, and when pulled green and roasted, eat very pleasantly; the yams resemble a potatoe, but are of a much larger size; cassava is the root

of a shrub with the juice, which is a deadly poison, quite expressed, and, being properly prepared, is a very wholesome and agreeable food. Swine are here very numerous, and their flesh remarkably delicate. The whole island is divided into three counties, Middlesex, Surrey, and Cornwall. Port Royal was formerly the capital of the island, standing on the very point of a long neck of land, which formed part of the border of a very noble harbour of its own name; this convenience occasioned its being selected for the seat of the capital, and in about thirty years from its foundation it became a considerable place, containing two thousand handsome houses; and for the size of it, few places in the world could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and corruption of morals. On the ninth of June, sixteen hundred and ninety-two, an earthquake buried nine-tenths of the place eight fathoms deep in water, making too terrible devastation all over the island. The town was rebuilt, but after ten years more it was destroyed by fire; yet the extraordinary convenience of the harbour induced the inhabitants once more to re-build it; but in seventeen hundred and twenty-two a most dreadfull hurricane reduced it once more to an heap of rubbish. The custom-house and publick offices were then removed with the principal inhabitants to the opposite side of the bay to the town of Kingston. Port Royal has, however, three or four handsome streets, several cross lanes, a fine church, and a king's yard, and hospital. Kingston is well supplied with fresh water, and all manner of accommodations; it is about a mile long, and contains above a thousand houses handsomely built; it has one or two churches; the Jews have two synagogues, and the quakers a meeting house. On the banks of the river Cobre, not far from Kingston, stands St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish Town, the seat of the government, and metropolis of the island, though in size inferior to Kingston; yet the residence of many persons of large fortune. The king appoints the governour and council of Jamaica; the representatives of the people, which compose the house of assembly, are chosen by the freeholders; the council consists of a president and ten members, the house of assembly of forty three, of whom one is chosen speaker; the governour is captain-general, admiral, and chancellor of the island; his salary, and various profits amount to little less than

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ten thousand pounds a year. The trade of Jamaica consists in sugar, rum, molasses, cotton, and various miscellaneous articles. Nor is a small profit derived from the logwood trade on the Spanish Main, and the illicit commerce carried on with different ports in Terra Firma. The logwood cutters are chiefly composed of vagabonds and fugitives from all parts of North America, and their way of life is such as might be expected; living in a lawless manner; though they elect from among themselves one whom they call their king, paying to him what obedience they think fit; prompted by hope of gain, and pleased with a life of licentiousness, they dare all the dangers of an unhealthy climate: they go always well armed, and are said to amount to about fifteen hundred. The island of Jamaica was discovered by Columbus in fifteen hundred and ninety-four; his son Diego was the first governour, and built the town of St. Jago de la Vega. On the arrival of the Spaniards the Indians appeared in arms, and bravely resolved to maintain their liberty; but the Spaniards taking advantage of their simplicity, deluded them by pretences of peace, and as soon as they were able to execute their sanguinary projects, they began an horrid massacre, and butchered, and destroyed in a few years sixty thousand of the natives, scarcely leaving one alive. Ere this desolation, Jamaica was one of the most populous of the Antilles; but so destructive were the Spanish slaughters, that in a few years no natives were left to preserve the memory of that once flourishing people. The island was taken from the Spaniards by an English force sent by Oliver Cromwell, to reduce Hispaniola in sixteen hundred and fifty-four, but which not succeeding in that enterprise, its commanders, Penn and Venables, turned their attempts against Jamaica, and quickly conquered it. Though many of the Spanish negroes retiring to the mountains, and being afterwards joined by other fugitives, became at length a formidable body under the name of Maroons, with whom, after an ineffectual attempt to reduce them, a treaty was made, under which they were permitted to continue independent, and be governed by magistrates of their own, on condition, that they did not protect fugitives. After the restoration, the Spaniards formally ceded Jamaica to the crown of England. What raised this settlement to

an high pitch of opulence, which it has since scarcely equalled, was the resort to it of the buccaneers. They often brought very large sums in pieces of eight, which were immediately squandered with the blindest extravagance; but while the inhabitants of Jamaica were rendered voluptuous and arrogant by wealth, a most tremendous earthquake plunged them into an abyss of misery. Of this catastrophe, notice has already been taken in speaking of Port Royal. At that time the houses all over the island were thrown down, and the surviving inhabitants were obliged to dwell in huts. A general sickness succeeded this calamity, and carried off no small number of those which the earthquake had left. Tempted by the hopes of an easy conquest, the French now invaded the island, but met with that severe repulse which their base attempt deserved; yet the blow given by these misfortunes to the population of Jamaica, seems to have been since scarcely repaired; for it is said, that the white inhabitants hardly exceed twenty-five thousand, while the blacks are computed at nearly ninety thousand.

Virgin Isles.

Between Porto Rico, the most eastern of the Great Antilles and the Carribbee lie the Virgin Islands, about twelve in number, but for the most part so unimproveable, that no European power claims them. The chief of them, St. Thomas, is divided between the Danes and Brandenburghers, some of whose planters by opening their harbour to all nations become rich; it naturally produces most of the West Indian commodities. The French buccaneers destroyed the Danish factory in this island; but a large battery has been since erected, which secures it from all irregular attacks. The neighbouring islands of Anegada and Sombrero having no settled European inhabitants, are remarkable only for the humming bird, and painted crabs of a peculiar kind and delicate taste.

Santa Cruz.

Santa Cruz is about five leagues east of St. Thomas, in length about ten or twelve leagues, and about three where broadest. The air is very unhealthy, but probably from the uncleared state of the island. The soil is very fertile, produces several kinds of fine trees for cabinet-makers work, with sugar canes, oranges, and other tropical fruits. The Spaniards when they first landed on this island, destroyed the natives, and, as in other places, soon after deserted it,

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when it lay a long time desolate, but it had afterwards several masters in a brief space. After some contest the English and Dutch shared it, but the former becoming the more numerous expelled the others, and were soon after expelled themselves by the Spaniards from Porto Rico, who burnt the houses, put all the men whom they found in arms to the sword, and transported the rest, with their wives and baggage, to Barbuda. The Dutch afterwards drove out the Spaniards; and in sixteen hundred and fifty-seven, the French governour of Martinico purchased this island, with those of St. Bartholomew, and St. Martin, of the Dutch, for the knights of Malta. It was afterwards purchased of those knights by the French West India company; but the French abandoning it in sixteen hundred and ninety-six, the Danes got possession of it, and it belonged to their West India company till it was purchased by Frederick the fifth, king of Denmark: its consequence chiefly arises from its being declared a free port.

Carribbee Islands.

Anguilla, so called from its serpentine form, is the most northern of the Carribees. When the English discovered this island, in the middle of the seventeenth century, it was overrun with noxious animals; yet the cattle imported have multiplied greatly. The soil was found favourable to both tobacco and corn. But being settled under no public authority, the island became a prey to every [illegible] yet the greatest damage sustained was from a party of [illegible] who landed after the revolution, and treated the planters more cruelly than any of the buccaneers who had landed before. The goodness of the soil, however, tempted planters from Barbadoes and other Carribees, where they remained without government, either civil or ecclesiastical. The island is woody, but perfectly level; the inhabitants subsist chiefly by husbandry, though they make a little sugar; they are far from being remarkable either for industry or numbers; and have been repeatedly pillaged by the French; but in seventeen hundred and forty-five gave them a severe repulse.

St. Martin's.

The island of St. Martin's lies about fifteen miles distant from Anguilla on the south-west, being about seven leagues in length and four broad; it has commodious bays and roads, with [illegible] salt pits, and lakes of salt water, abounding with [illegible]

no fresh except rain water. In this island are various trees yielding gum, with plenty of the candle-wood tree, small sticks of which, when dry, are lighted up instead of candles, and yield a very fragrant smell; but tobacco is the chief object of culture to the inhabitants. The Spaniards, who formerly kept a garrison here, having blown up the fort, and abandoned the place, the French and Dutch divided the island between them amicably; but in seventeen hundred and forty-four a body of English expelled the French, since which it has belonged to the English and the Dutch.

St. Bartholomew.

The island of St. Bartholomew lies in seventeen degrees, forty minutes north latitude, and in sixty-two degrees, forty-three minutes west longitude; it is reckoned only fifteen miles in circumference, but produces tobacco and cassava, and is covered with trees which give it a delightfull appearance, as the soap tree, the calabash tree, the canapia tree, which yields a very pleasant and salutary gum, lignum vitæ, and iron-wood; but it has not a single spring of fresh water: it is encompassed with many rocks, yet the harbour is a good one.

Saba.

Thirty miles south-west of St. Bartholomew lies Saba, a small, but pleasant island, four or five leagues in compass, and is said to have formerly belonged to the Danes; at first sight it seems to be only a rock; but a Dutch colony sent from St. Eustatia found it a valley producing the necessaries of life, and materials for several manufactures, but destitute of any port. The access to the valley is by a road cut in the rock, which admits only one person at a time, and this is stored with stones, by which alone the inhabitants might defend it against any assailants. With these arms they repulsed the French buccaneers in sixteen hundred and eighty-eight. The inhabitants raise some indigo and cotton, but their chief manufacture is shoes; and such is their industry and œconomy, that they live comfortably, and are attended by slaves, and some of them even become rich.

St. Eustatia.

To the south of St. Bartholomew lies the island of St. Eustatia, which is in fact a mountain rising out of the sea, and almost round. The air is wholesome, but the island is subject to dreadfull storms of thunder, to hurricanes, and to earthquakes; its produce is tobacco;

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and the Dutch are said to have on it five thousand whites, and fifteen thousand negroes; its shape renders it the strongest of the Caribbees, there being but one good landing place. It is only the very top of the island that is covered with wood, for the industry of the Dutch has laid out the sides of the mountains in plantations of sugar canes and tobacco. On the summit is a pretty large plain, harbouring wild beasts. In this and several adjacent islands is neither river or spring, but by their care the inhabitants never want supplies of rain water. There are several store houses well supplied with all necessaries and European goods, with which the Dutch supply their neighbours at a very advanced price, whenever supplies from Europe fail. Of this island the Dutch took possession in sixteen hundred and ninety-five, and it was granted by the states to some merchants of Flushing, who soon settled a colony on it. In sixteen hundred and sixty-five it was conquered by the English, but was soon re-taken by the French and Dutch; after which it had a French garrison, but it was restored to the Dutch by the treaty of Breda. In sixteen hundred and eighty-nine it was conquered by the French, but the very next year again reduced by the English. At the peace of Ryswick it again returned to the Dutch, with whom it remained at the close of this history.

Barbuda.

Ninety miles south-east of the island of Anguilla lies that of Barbuda, extending in length twenty, and in breadth twelve miles. The land is low and fertile, on the west side it has a good road well sheltered. This island produces the usual fruits of the West Indies; and there is on it plenty of beeves, sheep, goats, and fowls, the rearing which forms the principal employment of the inhabitants, who live much as our English farmers, but have no immediate trade with Britain. This colony was planted as early as any of the Leeward Islands, St. Christopher's excepted, but was so often disturbed by the Caribbs, that the people were repeatedly driven from their habitations; but the former diminishing in number, and the Europeans in the other islands increasing, the English again possessed themselves of Barbuda, and are increased to between one and two thousand: the island is subject to a proprietor of the name of Codrington.

St. Kitt's.

To the west, inclining to the south of the last-mentioned island, lies that of St. Christopher, commonly called St. Kitt's, extending in length twenty-five miles and a half, but it is no more than seven broad. On the top of the Conorrhee Hills is a plain, not three hundred yards wide, ending at the edge of a cavity of great depth, and about a mile in circumference, containing sulphur, from which rise continually clouds of steam. In this cavity are two or three round holes in the earth, vulgarly called the Devil's Coppers: they are two yards asunder, and each about three feet in diameter. They are said, at times, to boil fiercer than a sugar copper. Some writers speak of St. Kitt's as one of the most delightfull islands on the globe; its mountains rising above each other, and being adorned with trees that bear a perpetual verdure, intermixed with handsome houses covered with shining slate. The soil is light, and well supplied with springs. A salt lake affords here much salt. The animals differ but little from what are found in the other Carribbee Islands; yet the craw fowl deserves some notice: it is as big as a large duck, ash-coloured, has a great head, small eyes, and a short neck, under which is a craw that will hold two gallons of water. A great deal of wild honey is collected on this island. The inhabitants are computed at about eight thousand whites, and eighteen thousand negroes. The former, for the convenience of planting, live dispersed about the country; but have as fine houses as any in America, being built of cedar, and adorned with walks and groves of orange and lemon trees. The island is divided into the parishes of St. John, Christ Church, and St. Mary, on the north; and St. Ann, St. Thomas, and Trinity, on the south side. Basse Terre, the capital, is a fine town, built by the French. The island has a militia consisting of one regiment of foot, a troop of horse, and another of dragoons, in the whole more than a thousand men. St. Kitt's was discovered by Columbus, and the English and French in the time of James the first, divided the island between them, and under the pretence of a conspiracy formed among the natives, expelled them from it; a step which brought on an attack from the Carribbeans of the other islands, which was repelled. The Spaniards afterwards invaded it; but their expulsion of the French was only temporary, and the English quickly recovered the

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effects of their attacks, and flourished greatly; but during the first Dutch war of Charles the second, the French and Dutch expelled them, yet they recovered possession by the peace of Breda. After the revolution the French suddenly attacked the English on St. Kitt's, and forced them to evacuate the island. During the eight months in which the French were sole possessors of it, a most dreadfull earthquake took place, and the next year the island was recovered by the English; but at the peace of Ryswick, the French part was restored to them: yet at that of Utrecht, the whole island was ceded to Great Britain.

Nevis.

Three or four miles south-east of Kitt's is the island of Nevis, six leagues only in circumference, and in the centre is a mountain said to be exactly a mile and a half perpendicular. The land is very fertile in the vallies, but the uplands are stony. The produce of this island is the same as that of the other Carribbees. Some of the lizards found here are so large as to be five feet from the head to the tail. The land pike is so named from its resembling the fish; but instead of fins it has four feet, which are so weak, that it crawls slowly along, and winds its body like a pike just taken out of the water: it is about sixteen inches long; its skin is of a silver grey, and covered with shining scales. One of the most extraordinary animals here found is a species of snail, called the soldier, because having no shell of its own, it accommodates itself for the night in any shell it finds; for its defence it has something resembling the claw of a large crab, with which it closes the entrance of the shell. This claw is jagged within, and takes such firm hold of whatever it lays on, that it takes away the piece. Here is a pretty winged insect with four legs of various beautifull colours, called a fly catcher, from its entering rooms, and presently clearing them of all flies; it lies down on planks waiting for the flies, and puts its head in different postures on seeing them change their places: it frequently stands with its mouth half open, and when it sees an advantage, leaps directly on its prey; and is so tame, that it will come on the table during meals, and catch the flies that settle on the hands and clothes of the company. There are here land-crabs much smaller than our sea-crabs: they burrow like rabbits in the woods high up the mountains, but come

down every year to the sea to shed their shells, and then are easily caught during the night by torch light. With long and slender claws they move fast; and make their way with surprising expedition through planks; and such is their eagerness after dead bodies, that they have been frequently known to penetrate a coffin, within four-and-twenty hours after it has been put into the earth, and reduce the corpse to a mere skeleton. Those of the inhabitants of this island who are of European origin, are computed at about three thousand, and the negroes at three times that number. The only town in the island is Charlestown, which has large houses, and shops well stored, and is defended by a fort. The government of Nevis is vested in a governour, council, and assembly, and can make a law for twelve months, but it lasts no longer without the royal confirmation. This island was settled in sixteen hundred and twenty-eight by Sir Thomas Warner, and great was its progress in population. A Mr. Lake, the memory of whose government is still revered, succeeded Sir Thomas Warner. Nevis, was one of the islands which with the Leeward Islands, were put under a separate general government, while each island has its lieutenant-governour, council, and assembly. Sir William Stapleton was the first governour of the Leeward Islands, who after the death of lord Willoughby, chose Nevis as the place of his residence, and under him the island seems to have risen to its highest prosperity. His successor, Sir Nathaniel Johnson, resided also in Nevis. The mortality which so greatly afflicted the Caribbee Islands in general, in sixteen hundred and eighty-nine, swept off half of the inhabitants of Nevis. In the following year the island suffered under a violent earthquake, against which the timber houses only in Charlestown stood. In the reign of queen Anne, Nevis was subjugated by the French, the inhabitants having provoked the attack by the activity of their privateers; but the enemy did not keep possession of it. In seventeen hundred and seven, the island was reduced to the verge of ruin by an hurricane. The piety of the inhabitants of Nevis manifests itself in their having a regular weekly market every Sunday morning.

Antigua.

To the east of the islands of St. Kitt's and Nevis lies that of Antigua, in north latitude seventeen degrees four minutes, and in

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sixty degrees nine minutes west longitude; it is nearly circular in form, and is about sixty miles in circumference. It has more good harbours than all the other English islands in these seas, but is so encompassed with rocks, that in many parts it is dangerous of access. While Sir Thomas Warner was governour of St. Kitt's, some English were settled on Antigua, and their numbers so increased as to excite the jealousy of the Caribbs, from whom they suffered an attack. Afterwards the French settled on this island were driven from it, but revenged their expulsion by encouraging their countrymen to invade the island, of which they made themselves masters, and continued so until sixteen hundred and sixty-eight, when by the treaty of Breda it was restored to the English. The colony then began to flourish exceedingly under the care of colonel Codrington, governour-general of the Leeward Islands, who made it the seat of his government; yet in his time the island was more than once reduced to a scene of desolation by hurricanes, particularly in sixteen hundred and eighty-one; and nine years after it was almost ruined by an earthquake. Colonel Codrington was succeeded as governour of the Leeward Islands by Sir William Matthews, who also made Antigua the place of his residence. In the midst of the French attacks on the other English islands, Antigua remained unmolested, and the inhabitants of it grew rich. But colonel Park being appointed to the government of it, behaved in a most unpopular manner, and led a life so loose and scandalous as to give universal offence; yet he was supported at home by the heads of the whig administration; at length, however, his conduct produced complaints against him, that he was ordered home, but refused to comply, and continued his contests with the inhabitants until open hostilities took place, in which Park was slain. Mr. Hamilton, lieutenant-general of the Leeward Islands, was then invited to take on himself the government of Antigua, but was soon superseded by a Walter Douglas, and he again by Hamilton. The climate of this island is hotter than that of Barbadoes. The soil is sandy, yet much overrun with wood. The island has few springs, and not a single brook, and consequently the inhabitants are at times distressed for water, still it is a thriving and considerable place. It produces nearly

the same commodities as the other Caribbee Islands, particularly sugar and tobacco; it has more venison than any of them, and a considerable number of black cattle and fowls. Antigua is divided into five parishes, and has as many small towns; St. John's the capital, Falmouth, Parham, Bridgetown, and St. Peter's. The inhabitants are computed at seven thousand whites, and thirty thousand blacks.

Montserrat.

The island of Montserrat was discovered by Columbus, who gave it that name from its resembling a mountain so called near Barcelona; it lies twenty miles west-south-west of Antigua, is of an oval form, and about eighteen miles in compass. Hither Sir Thomas Warner, governour of St. Kitt's, sent a small English colony, in sixteen hundred and thirty-two. Afterwards a reinforcement of hands was sent by lord Willoughby, and so successfull was their industry, that for several years this island prospered more than Antigua. In sixteen hundred and sixty-eight, it was reduced by the French, but it afterwards reverted to the crown of England. In sixteen hundred and ninety-two it was nearly destroyed by an earthquake; it is divided into two parishes, the churches of which are lined with cedar, and the pulpit and pews made of that and other sweet scented woods. As to its climate, soil, animals, and trade, Montserrat much resembles the other English Caribbee Islands; its mountains are covered with cedars, cypress-trees, acomas, and the musk herb. On the same grows the tree called iron-wood; which does not exceed thirty feet in height, and the trunk is but slender. It is termed iron-wood from its close texture, and great weight; it will sink in water, is proof against all weathers, and in several ages suffers scarcely any decay. The vallies of Montserrat are well watered and fertile, and its chief produce is indigo; it is surrounded with rocks, and has no place that can properly be termed an haven.

Guadaloupe.

From its resemblance to a chain of mountains in old Spain, Columbus gave to the island which the native Caribbs called Carukera, the name of Guadaloupe. He found in it a people farther advanced in the arts of life, than the natives of the other Caribbee Islands. The women of the country furiously opposed his landing; but being soon dispersed by the Spaniards, these found the houses

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stored with large quantities of cotton spun and unspun, with looms for weaving it. They are said to have also found iron, bows, and arrows, and cotton-hammocks. Honey, wax, pompions, a species of cinnamon-tree, mastic, aloes, sandal-wood, ginger, and several other West Indian products, were found here in large quantities. Guadaloupe lies in fifteen degrees fifty-nine minutes north latitude, and in longitude sixty-one fifty-nine west, and is about forty-five miles in length, and thirty-eight in breadth, being divided into two parts by a narrow channel through which no ship can venture. The country on the east side is called Grand Terre, and is destitute of water. The western is termed Basse Terre, and in this stands the principal towns. We know nothing of its history from the time of Columbus until the

A. D. 1635. institution of the French general company of the American Islands. The religious differences in France at that time soon produced adventurers. These led by two conductors of the names of D'Olive and Duplessis, landed at a place where the soil appeared unpromising, and finding their store of provisions but small, the leaders agreed to separate. D'Olive built Fort St. Pierre. At first the natives received them with ease and hospitality, and what interrupted their *friendly intercourse* does not appear; but in a short time the French were afflicted with a dreadfull famine. In the course of their calamities Duplessis died, and the whole direction of the colony devolved on D'Olive, who at length broke with the savages, and massacred great numbers of them; when they for assistance applied to the Caribbs in the neighbouring islands, who so effectually attacked the French, that the colony was nearly exterminated. The tyranny and rapaciousness of D'Olive added to the misery of those under his command, and such at length became his situation from their discontent, that he lost his understanding, and becoming blind, went to St. Kitt's, where he was put under arrest by the governour-general of the French islands. This officer, M. De Poincy, knowing the value of Guadaloupe, exerted himself in sending colonists to it, and after much difficulty gained for the planters some degree of tranquillity. The French now found it their interest to cultivate a good understanding with the Caribbs, and a M. Aubert, who was appointed governour, by his prudence and justice was of vast service

to the colony; but he was displaced to make room for a M. Houel, during whose residence on the island animosity and dissension again prevailed; yet in the main the colony acquired strength and riches. Still it was anew menaced with ruin, first by three dreadfull hurricanes, then by a conspiracy of the negroes, into whose hands Houel had put fire-arms, to support his own tyrannical measures. When this was overcome, a civil war took place between the governour and the planters; when at length the French king sent over the Marquis de Tracy, with the new title of his majesty's viceroy of America. He found the affairs of Guadaloupe in great disorder, yet at last was able to establish a kind of general peace over all the islands, in which the English, French, and Caribbs were parties. In the year sixteen hundred and seventy-four, the trade and possessions of the French West India company were taken into the king's hands; and by a treaty of neutrality for America, afterwards made between Lewis the fourteenth and James the second, the French had an opportunity of raising their affairs in that quarter of the world from a despondent to a formidable state. Of this fortunate crisis they made use to exterminate the Caribbs from Guadaloupe. After the French king took this island more immediately under his own government, it became incomparably his most profitable colony. The air of Guadaloupe is less sultry than that of Martinico. In this island is a hill called La Soufrière, rising to a great height. On the top of it grows nothing but fern, and some sorry shrubs, and over it are scattered burnt stones of all sizes, and smoke issues from several chinks. On the east side are two mouths which open into a pit of sulphur, one of which is oval, of about an hundred feet in its greatest diameter, and from it frequently arise thick clouds of black smoke, accompanied with sparks of fire. The middle and bottom of this burning mountain differ very widely from its top, being covered with tall trees and herbage, watered by a number of rivulets, and cultivated with great care. Among the vegetables are the copau tree, renowned for its sanative balsam, the milk shrub, from the fibres of which is pressed a liquor resembling milk, and the corbury tree, yielding a gum which, by exposure to the sun, becomes solid and very clear. The most remarkable bird, though one of passage, is said to

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be peculiar to this island and Dominica, and is called the devil-bird, from the blackness of its plumage; it is of the size of a young pullet, with long wings, short legs, and feet like a duck, with strong claws; its beak is crooked, sharp, and hard, and about an inch and a half long: its eyes are large, and able to discern fish in the sea during the night, which it then catches, but it cannot bear the day light. After having fished in the night, they repair to the hill called the Devil's Mountain, where they lodge by pairs in holes like rabbits. Their flesh, though fishy, affords the inhabitants of the island during the season, which is principally the months of October and November, good and nutritious food. The gulfs on the coasts of Guadaloupe contain turtle, sharks and many kinds of fish. The bees of this island differ from those of Europe in being black, smaller, and without stings. Guadaloupe is infested with an insect called a ravet, shaped like a May-bug, and of an offensive smell, which preys on paper, books, and furniture; from their number these insects would be intolerable, but for a large spider which entangles them in its web, and takes all opportunities of surprising them. This island was taken by the English in seventeen hundred and fifty-nine. During the four years of their possession it improved greatly in produce and importance, yet it was restored by the peace of Paris.

Deseada and Xaintes.

Under the government of Guadaloupe are comprehended Deseada and the islands of Xaintes. The former received its name, signifying the desirable island, from Columbus, it being the first of the Caribbees which he discovered in his second voyage; it lies about twenty miles to the north-east of Guadaloupe; and is sixteen miles long, and only two broad: some part of it is very fertile, and the cotton it produces remarkably good. The latter are in number three, with a soil like that of Guadaloupe. The best of them, the westernmost, is about nine miles in compass; but from the want of fresh water, none of them seem ever to have been statedly inhabited. It should seem that the manners of the Caribbs are much altered since their islands were first discovered, and that for the worse. Nothing more is heard of their cotton manufactures. Mention is made of their being at the time when the Spaniards first arrived among them in possession of sugar canes, which adds to the

probability of their being derived, as it has been asserted, from Brasil. The Caribbs have olive complexions, little black piercing eyes, and their mothers take pains to flatten their foreheads and noses; they do not suffer any beard to grow on their faces and chins, and in their form they are strong and well proportioned: both sexes commonly go naked. They bore their noses, ears, and lips, hanging in them pieces of amber, gold, tortoise-shell, or any ornament they can procure; their whole mode of life is unrestrained, but modest; their ancient language is said to be smooth and flowing. They without doubt devoured the bodies of those they took in war. In other respects they are said, in their manners and customs, vices and virtues, closely to resemble the Brazilians; but they are to the last degree vindictive and implacable. They have no institution of government for punishing crimes, so that private resentment directs all their justice; they have an idea of two principles, one benevolent, to which they deem it superfluous to pray; the other hurtfull, to which they pray with great fervour.

Marigalante.

About twelve miles south-east of Guadaloupe, lies the island of Marigalante, so called from the name of the ship of Columbus, who first discovered it; it is of a circular form, and about fifty miles in circumference. When the French attempted to settle it, they met with a vigorous opposition from the natives, and afterwards their possession of it was unquiet. Sometimes the Caribbs endeavoured to massacre their invaders, at others the island was plundered by the Dutch. In sixteen hundred and fifty-two, the Caribbs being obliged to retire to Dominica, left the French in sole possession of this island. The English became twice masters of it, exclusive of its last submission, and at the peace of Paris it went with Guadaloupe; it abounds with tobacco and the wild cinnamon tree, and contains a great many grottoes, where large crabs are found, as also several rivers and ponds of fresh water. Along the eastern shore run high rocks, which afford shelter to a vast number of tropical birds. The western shore is flat, and the ground in general proper for cultivation.

Dominica.

Dominica, which owes its name to its being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday, is the most northerly of the windward

islands. It lies about half way between Guadaloupe and Martinico; it is in compass about thirty leagues. In its centre are inaccessible mountains, in which rise springs of excellent water; but it contains a great deal of improveable ground. In the end of the sixteenth century the earl of Cumberland, bearing a commission from queen Elizabeth, anchored in the harbour of Dominica; he afterward mustered his men on the island, and does not appear to have met with any opposition from the inhabitants. From this pre-occupancy, Charles the first hesitated not to insert Dominica in the earl of Carlisle's original patent, and it has ever since stood as one of the islands included in the commission of the governour of Barbadoes. Most of the Caribbs when expelled from the other islands, retired hither, and the natives of it excelled all the other Caribbs not only in strength, courage, and activity, but in a form of government, introduced by one Baron, a Frenchman, who conformed himself to their manners, and at the head of them made several expeditions against the English on the other islands. When in the reign of Charles the second, lord Willoughby was governour of Barbadoes, he sent a number of men to settle in Dominica, and though the French on the island pleaded that the Caribbs were their allies, in consequence of a treaty concluded in sixteen hundred and forty, he supported his colony with an armed force from Barbadoes; when the natives by a formal instrument surrendered the island to the English. At the time of the treaty of neutrality between James the second and the French king already noticed, colonel Stede, lieutenant-governour of Barbadoes, vindicated his authority over Dominica; but during the war subsequent to the revolution, this island remained of no consequence to any European power. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle it was declared neutral; but it was taken by the English in seventeen hundred and sixty-one, and was ceded to Great Britain at the peace of Paris; when the whites on the island amounted to six hundred, and the slaves to two thousand. There is no vegetable produced by the other islands but may be raised here in abundance. Towards the sea this island appears rugged; but the declivities of the hills may be cultivated to the very top, and often terminate in beautifull and well watered plains. The soil is remarkably rich, the air

eminently salubrious, and the country is fertilised by about thirty small rivers. Here are also very salutary hot springs; and the fruits and timber are excellent.

Martinico.

Martinico, the largest of the French Caribbee Islands, lies between fourteen degrees eighteen minutes, and fourteen degrees fifty-nine minutes north latitude, and between sixty degrees thirty-one minutes, and sixty-one, twenty-one of west longitude; it is in circuit about an hundred and thirty miles. The air is hotter than at Guadaloupe, yet hurricanes have not been either so frequent or so violent as in that and some other of the Caribbee islands. The country is hilly within land; it is said to have no less than forty rivers, some of which are navigable a good way up the country; ten of these are never dry. Some of the hills are cultivated, and on their ascents grows tobacco of a better quality than that in the valleys; other hills are overgrown with trees, which afford shelter to wild beasts, and abundance of snakes. The other produce of the island consists of sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, aloes, pimento, Indian figs, bananas, pine-apples, melons, cassia, mendiaca, potatoes, and other roots. Martinico is the residence of the governour-general of the French Caribbee Islands. This island was settled by the French from St. Kitt's, in sixteen hundred and thirty-seven; who for many years maintained a continued warfare with the natives; but the invaders increased in numbers and in strength. After it was placed under the French West India company, in consequence of the imposition of duties, discontents arose, which tied at one time to an open revolt. In sixteen hundred and fifty the old West India company sold this island, Saint Lucia, Grenada, and the Grenadines to Parquet; and fourteen years after, Lewis the fourteenth obtained possession of Martinico, and granted it to a new West India company; but in ten years more he suppressed that company, and all the above islands became part of his domain. After this both the Dutch and English attacked Martinico without success. In seventeen hundred the population of it was computed at upwards of twenty-one thousand. Twenty-seven years afterwards an earthquake occurred, which with short intervals lasted eleven hours. Many persons were killed, and besides publick buildings, two hundred sugar-works were

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destroyed. One mountain was levelled, another cleft asunder, and copious streams of water issued from the chasm; yet the island recovered itself in a few years. Immediately on the peace of Utrecht, Martinico had become the mart of all the French windward settlements, and rose to great prosperity; but the war with England which broke out in seventeen hundred and forty-four, was very destructive to the interest of Martinico; nor did the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle with the freedom of trade restore the hoped for prosperity to the island, and in a short time, a fresh war occasioned a new train of calamities. The English attempted in vain to take Martinico in seventeen hundred and fifty-nine, yet succeeded three years after; but it was restored to France by the peace of Paris. The principal places in this island are Saint Peters and Fort Royal. The former is the capital, and situate on the western side of it, along the shore. The houses of part of it are neat, commodious, and elegant. The parish church of St. Peter is a magnificent stone building; of stone too is the church of the Anchorage. Fort Royal is twenty-one miles distant, and is built on an eminence projecting into the sea. Though the town contain regular streets, and a large church, it is said to be much inferior to St. Peter's.

St. Lucia.

About six leagues south of Martinico lies the island of St. Lucia, so denominated from the legendary saint, on whose day it was discovered; it is twenty-three miles long, and twelve where broadest; its soil is dry and stony, and it has generally been deemed an unwholesome and unkindly spot: it has some high and craggy mountains evidently volcanic; and in one deep valley are several ponds of which the water boils up very powerfully, retaining its heat even at three miles distance from its source. The Careenage harbour, which lies to leeward, has good soundings, with an excellent bottom, and in it thirty ships of the line may safely ride: in this colony are nine parishes. The English first settled on the island in sixteen hundred and thirty-nine, but in the following year they were expelled by the Caribbs. No settlement was afterwards made until M. Parquet, governour of Martinico, in sixteen hundred and fifty took possession of the island; but his successor was with many of the settlers cut off by the natives. From these last, in the year sixteen hundred and

sixty-three, the English purchased the island and made a settlement on it; but the colony being much reduced by a great mortality, the survivors three years after abandoned the island. The French again took possession of it after fifty years; but the English considering their right as not extinct, the former on proper representation evacuated it. The duke of Montague soon after obtained from George the first a grant of this, and the island of St. Vincent, and settled a colony, which not prospering, it was agreed between the British and French governments, that the island should be abandoned, and, with several others, considered as neutral. But by the peace of Paris it was agreed, that the neutral islands should pass into the possession of one or other of the two crowns, and St. Lucia was assigned to France.

Barbadoes.

Barbadoes is said to lie between fifty-nine degrees fifty minutes west longitude, and sixty degrees two minutes; and between twelve degrees fifty-six minutes, and thirteen degrees sixteen minutes north latitude; its utmost length being thirty miles, and its greatest breadth twenty. The whole island may be considered as a continued garden, as every foot of ground is improved to the utmost. The sea-breezes diminish the insalubrity of the climate. The capital is Bridgetown, situated in Carlisle Bay, and by some asserted to be the finest town in English America. The houses are in general spacious, well-built, and finished. The quays are very convenient, and well defended from the sea; and Bridgetown is destitute of the few conveniences or elegancies of life, which any city in Europe affords: it has a free school, an hospital, and a college. The soil of Barbadoes is generally fertile, but differs much in different parts of the island. As the fertility of this, as well as of the other West India islands, depends on seasonable rains, a chain of hills interspersed with deep vallies, is providentially situated to the eastward of some parts of the island, to intercept the clouds and vapours. Hence the lowlands which have no hills to stop the progress of the clouds, are often scorched with drought, when the more hilly parts are refreshed with rain. The prospects from several hills over the vales below are truly beautifull; but the public roads are remarkably bad. This island abounds

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with caves, has several springs and a few rivulets. The inhabitants of St. Andrew's and St. Joseph's parish are plentifully supplied with fresh water, by digging holes in the sand from ten inches to three feet deep; but in other parts, the inhabitants are obliged to preserve rain water in reservoirs. In the centre of the island are several bituminous springs; some of which furnish the green tar, which is applied to medicinal purposes, and frequently supplies the want of pitch and lamp oil. There is another species of bitumen, which is solid, and here called munjac, and is dug from the sides of the hills at different depths, and nearly resembles the bitumen of the Dead Sea. If by chance any of these veins take fire, they continue to burn, though slowly, yet for a long time. The trees of Barbadoes are very numerous. That called the palm-oil tree grows to the height of fifty feet, its branches somewhat resembling those of the cabbage tree. The fruit is inclosed in a pod, which contains many small nuts of a yellowish colour; and in its many interstices, when ripe, is a considerable quantity of oil, which, after the whole fruit is first baked in the embers, the slaves greedily suck. The burgamot tree resembles that of the orange, but the fruit is somewhat larger; the oil extracted from it is what is the most valued. The Portuguese make snuff-boxes of the rind, which retain for a long time the fragrance of the oil. The sheep bred here are, as in the other Caribbee islands, hairy like goats. There are here but three species of reptiles, which can properly be called venomous, the black spider, the forty leg, and the Surinam scorpion. A full grown scorpion of the common sort is about ten inches long, the skin soft but scaly, and of a dull copper colour; it is said, the very young ones are preserved from danger by the parent opening her mouth, and swallowing them, and when the danger is over, she voids them: but the Surinam scorpion is only three inches long. The monkies of this island, though not numerous, do much mischief by digging out of the earth yams and potatoes, and sometimes breaking and carrying off the ripe sugar-canes; but the most destructive quadruped in respect to these last plants, are the rats, which are so numerous, that the annual loss from them to the parishes of St. Joseph and St. Andrew only, has been computed at

two or three thousand pounds. The birds are not numerous. The shore affords a great variety of beautifull shell-fish, and of marine productions.* Barbadoes is divided into five precincts, which all together contain eleven parishes. Bridgetown is the seat of the government. There are three other towns of smaller note, Ostin's, St. James's, and Speights. Every part of the island is strewed with gentlemen's houses, encompassed by fields of sugar-canes, and a vast multitude of elegant and usefull plants. The government of Barbadoes consists of a governour appointed by the king, a council of twelve members under the same appointment, and an assembly of twenty-two representatives, elected annually by the freeholders, two for each parish. The governour is commander in chief, chancellor, ordinary, and vice-admiral of the island. Here is in general a greater appearance of order and decency than in any other colony in the

* Among the fish found in the sea near this island is mentioned the shark, of one of which a tale so singular is preserved, that the reader can but be pleased to see it. About the latter end of queen Anne's wars, a captain of a ship from England having landed the last part of his freight, which was coals, the sailors employed in this dirty work, went into the sea to wash themselves. Ere they had long been there, a shark was seen making towards them, and on the alarm being given they swam back, and all reached the boat except one; him the monster overtook almost within reach of the oars, and seizing him by the small of the back, bit him in two, and swallowed the lower part; the other was taken up, and carried on board; where a comrade of his, whose friendship with the deceased had long been remarkable, saw with horrour the mangled remains of his friend; and observing the shark still swimming about in search of the rest of his prey, fired at the sight, and vowing that he would make the devourer disgorge, or be swallowed himself in the attempt, he plunged into the sea armed with a sharp pointed knife. The shark immediately on seeing him, made furiously towards him; but the moment he opened his jaws, his adversary dexterously diving, and grasping with him his left arm somewhat below the upper fins, successfully used the knife in his right hand, stabbing him repeatedly in the belly; the enraged shark endeavoured with many unavailing efforts to disengage himself, sometimes diving, then raising himself above the water. The crews of the surrounding vessels saw the combat, without knowing from which of the combatants the blood flowed, till at last the shark made toward the shore, and with him his conquerour, pushing him with redoubled ardour, and by the help of the tide dragging him on shore, ripped up his bowels, and united and buried the carcase of his friend.

West Indies; and there is there no place comparable to Barbadoes for population, cultivation, and the happy results of both. Sugar is the chief article of exportation from this island, the cane of which was first brought hither from Brasil. Tobacco was planted here before the sugar-cane; besides rum and molasses, ginger and cotton are exported from hence in considerable quantities. It is uncertain when Barbadoes was discovered; this arises from many records being burnt in a fire at Bridgetown in the seventeenth century; but from some papers saved, it appears that an English ship, named the Olive, fell in with this island, some of whose crew erected a cross, and left inscribed on a tree, "James king of England, and of this island." About sixteen hundred and twenty-four, a ship belonging to Sir William Courteen, a very considerable London merchant, landed about thirty men on it, who formed a settlement on the western side, but found the country uninhabited, and overgrown with thick woods. The report brought by this ship, induced her owner and some others to fit out two vessels for the island; but no sooner was their design known, than Hay, earl of Carlisle, obtained a grant from the crown of all the Caribbee islands. Great were the difficulties with which the first planters had to struggle; but their perseverance carried them on, until things wore a more favourable aspect. Some of the trees yielded fustic for the dyers; cotton and indigo were found to grow well on the soil, and tobacco answered tolerably. The colony rapidly increasing in sixteen hundred and fifty, the governour appointed a council consisting of ten members, and an assembly of representatives of the people; and he divided the island into four circuits, and eleven parishes. But the conquest of Jamaica tended to lessen greatly the importance of Barbadoes. Soon after the Restoration, Charles the second compounded with the heirs of the earl of Carlisle for the surrender of the patent of the Caribbee islands; but when at the height of its prosperity, and being said to support fifty thousand whites and seventy thousand slaves, Barbadoes was afflicted with an hurricane, which left not standing an house or tree unsheltered by some neighbouring rise; and since that time the island has been on the decline. In sixteen hundred and ninety-two

a pestilence raged on it, twenty persons frequently dying in a day in the capital, and in proportion throughout the island; nor did it perfectly subside for several years.

St. Vincent.

Fifty miles west of Barbadoes lies the island of St. Vincent, which is in compass about sixty miles; its soil is deep and rich, capable of producing all the plants of the climate, and it is plentifully watered by rivulets and springs. This, as well as the islands of Dominica and St. Lucia, was in sixteen hundred and sixty-nine inhabited by a race supposed to be descended from the Aborigines of this Archipelago. Some Africans from a wreck, having females with them, obtained a settlement on the island, and soon increased greatly. A mixed race springing from these people and the former inhabitants, occasioned the distinction between black and red Caribbs. These opposing every attempt of the Europeans to make a settlement on their island, it continued neutral until the peace of Paris, when it was acknowledged to belong to the English, who in their treatment of the original proprietors, do not seem to have practised justice much more accurately than their rivals in colonization and trade.

Granada and Granadines.

Granada or Grenada is situated from eleven degrees fifty-five minutes, to twelve twenty three minutes north latitude, and in sixty-one, forty west longitude, and is said to be about sixty-six miles in circumference. This and its neighbouring isles produce very fine timber, and their soil is adapted to the growth of sugar, tobacco, and indigo. A lake on the top of a high hill in the middle of the island supplies it with streams of fresh water, and it abounds with game. The bays and harbours which lie round the island render it convenient for shipping, while it has the happiness of not being visited by hurricanes. The French after some unsuccessful attempts, at length became masters of Granada, by dispossessing the original inhabitants, whom, by the most inhuman severity and cruelty, they extirpated, but not without great loss from the brave resistance of the Caribbs; and they kept possession of it for about a century, and in the year seventeen hundred and sixty-two it was reduced by the English, to whom by the peace of Paris both it and the Grenadines, which bear nearly the same produce, were fully ceded.

Tobago.

About thirty seven leagues south of Barbadoes lies Tabago or

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Tobago, the most southward of all the Caribbees, being about seventy miles in compass. At a small distance from the north-eastern extremity is a small isle called Little Tobago, about two miles long, and one broad. The climate of this island is not so hot as might be expected from its situation, nor is it subject to dreadfull hurricanes; its surface is diversified with hills and vales; the soil in general is black and rich, and well adapted for producing in the utmost plenty all the products of the West Indies: the springs on it are numerous, and it is provided with commodious bays and creeks. The valuable trees growing in Tobago are perhaps its richest produce, for besides the different woods found in the other islands, the Dutch affirm the cinnamon and true nutmeg trees grow on it, and it is said to produce five different kinds of pepper; but of all trees the cotton tree has been cultivated to the greatest advantage. Horses, beeves, asses, sheep, deer, goats, and rabbits, were probably introduced by the Courlanders and the Dutch. Here are also the pickery, resembling a hog, armadillos, and guanoes. Its shore abounds with excellent fish, nor can perhaps any island boast of a greater variety of fowl. The first attempt to settle Tobago was made by the English in Charles the first's time, but it proved abortive. The Dutch then gained possession of it, but they were dispossessed by the natives, excited by the Spaniards. Some time after the duke of Courland conveyed thither a colony of his subjects, when the Dutch revived their claim, and at length subdued the Courlanders. The court of France then assuming a right to the island, the Dutch on it agreed to become subject to the French king, and were permitted to retain their lands; but some English privateers in the reign of Charles the second destroyed the Dutch forts, and dispersed the colony. After which it frequently passed from one power to another, until by the peace of Nimeguen it was assigned to the Dutch; yet three years after, the vice-admiral of France attacked and reduced it. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle it was declared a neutral island; but being too valuable to remain such, the French made attempts to settle on it, which were successfully opposed by the English, to whom it was at length ceded by the peace of Paris.

Trinidad.

The island of Trinidad forms the strait of the gulf of Paria to the

north of the Oroonoko; it is the largest on the coast; it is about sixty-two miles in length, and forty-five in breadth. The climate is represented as unwholesome, but the soil is fertile, producing sugar, fine tobacco, Indian corn, variety of fruit, and some cotton trees, and the roots most common in America; it is thinly peopled, and its history contains few events. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh at the close of the sixteenth century, and in sixteen hundred and seventy-six, the French plundered the island and its inhabitants; but at the period when this history closes, it was in the hands of the Spaniards.

Margarita.

About five degrees west of Trinidad near the northern coast of New Andalusia lies the island of Margarita, which was discovered by Columbus, and is about thirty-five leagues in compass. It was once rich and populous, but the rapacity of the Spaniards has destroyed the pearl fishery. Though the island wants fresh water, it is always verdant; being very fertile and abounding with pasture, maize, and fruit, and having many groves. When Columbus first touched on its coasts, the natives, who were fishing for oysters, received him with ease, and disposed of their pearls to the Spaniards for the merest trifles. In process of time the new comers built a castle called Monpadre, and employed great numbers of negroes in the pearl fishery. In sixteen hundred and twenty this island was invaded by the Dutch, who demolished the castle; since which it has been nearly abandoned by the Spaniards, and principally inhabited by the natives.

Salt Tortuga.

North-west from Margarita lies the island of Salt Tortuga, so named on account of a large salt-pond at the east end of it, where ships lade with salt; but though there is a small harbour in the island, it is uninhabited, being rugged and barren.

Blanco.

The island of Blanco lies north of Margarita, but is remarkable only for its turtle fishery.

Curassou or Curaçao.

The most western of the range of which these islands form a part, and which range is called the Little Antilles, is the island of Curassou or Curaçao, which lies about twenty-five leagues from the continent, and is about thirty miles long, and ten broad. The chief harbour is about three leagues from the south-east end, where the Dutch have a very good town, and a strong fort. Though the soil be barren, a considerable quantity of both sugar and tobacco is here raised, and

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there are very great salt-works. The trade of Curassou, consisting of the commodities both of Europe and the East Indies, is said to be to the Dutch worth half a million sterling. The publick buildings of the town are numerous and handsome, the private houses commodious, and the magazines large, convenient, and well supplied. Almost all kinds of labour are here performed by engines.

Bonaire.

To the eastward of Curassou is seated the island of Bonaire, which is sixteen or seventeen leagues round, and the inhabitants of which are employed chiefly in raising maize, yams, potatoes, and in grazing.

Aruba.

Aruba, which also belongs to the Dutch, is seven or eight leagues westward of Curassou, and the inhabitants of it, like those of the last island, are chiefly employed in raising fresh provisions for the principal island, and for the ships which resort to those seas.

The Bermudas.

The only islands on the coast of the new continent which now remain to be noticed are the Bermudas or Somers' Islands, situate in thirty-two degrees thirty-five minutes north latitude, and about sixty-three degrees twenty-eight minutes west longitude. They received their first name from being discovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard, in the former part of the sixteenth century, and the other from Sir George Somers, an Englishman, who with Sir Thomas Gates, was shipwrecked on them in his passage to Virginia, in the beginning of the seventeenth; though ignorance, or the mildness of their climate, has caused the name to be changed to Summer Islands. The two knights had been sent as deputy-governours to these islands by lord Delaware, governour of Virginia, on the favourable report of one John May, who had been also wrecked on Saint George's, one of the most considerable of them. Before any settlement was made, Sir George Somers, who returned there a second time (the first attempt having miscarried in consequence of dissentions arising), was cut off by death; nor was any progress made in colonizing the island, until a Bermudas company, which obtained a charter from king James, sent sixty planters thither under the conduct of a sensible carpenter of the name of Moor, who fixed themselves on St. George's Island. In the course of a year a new supply of provisions and planters arrived from England, and St. George's Town was laid

out, and in a short time the expenses of the company was equalled by the returns in several kinds of drugs, cedar, tobacco, and other commodities. During Moor's government the Spaniards made a show of attacking the island, but a multitude of rats did it much more real harm. To Moor, at the end of three years, succeeded captain Daniel Tucker; the severity of whose discipline drove five of his people to venture to escape from the island in an open boat, who, after encountering great perils, and suffering equal misery, arrived at Cork in Ireland; having made the voyage in forty-two days. Captain Tucker resigned his government to captain Butler, A. D. 1619. who carried over with him five hundred planters. The white inhabitants now amounting to above a thousand, to the governour and council, which had hitherto ruled the island, was added an assembly, and a body of laws was formed. Captain Butler had a short-lived successor of the name of Barnard. After which many adventurers of distinction concurring in the settlement of these islands, the number of English on them arose to three thousand; and a surveyor was sent from England, who divided them into eight districts, named after the proprietors; but the distance of the islands from both continents, and still more the danger of the navigation around them, prevented the Bermudas success in commerce, and their population soon diminished. The whole number of these islands is said to be nearly four hundred, a few only of which are habitable. The principal of them are Saint George, Saint David, Ireland, Somerset, Long Island, Bird Island, Cooper, and Nonsuch; the first being the most considerable. The temperament of this and the other Bermudas, is stated to have undergone a great change for the worse, since they were discovered, the air having become much more inclement, and the soil much less fertile. They are now said to be far from delightfull, and their productions but just sufficient for the subsistence of the inhabitants; whose number does not exceed five thousand. This change is ascribed to cutting down the cedar groves, which furnished a defence against northern blasts. These islands are said to be without any fresh and good water. Maize is the only corn raised. As the cedars which the inhabitants use in building their best vessels, excell those of all the other parts of America; so

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the palmeto, a kind of wild palm, is no less usefull to them. Its fruit, resembling in colour, shape, and size, our damson, is very delicious; the wood is serviceable for building and fuel; and the leaves, being from eight to ten feet long, make a good covering for their houses. These islands have a prodigious variety of wild fowl. The only manufactures carried on in them are those of sail-cloth and ship-building. Little addicted to commerce, the inhabitants seem to content themselves with the pleasure of a country in which they enjoy a quiet retreat from the cares and troubles of the rest of the world. They have constantly maintained a reputation for simplicity and integrity; and the then beauty and healthiness of the Bermudas, with the amiable character of the inhabitants, induced the learned and no less amiable Doctor Berkeley, afterwards bishop of Cloyne, to erect in them an academy for promoting Christianity among the savage tribes of America, and educating for that purpose some of their youth; but the money which government had promised not being transmitted to him, and he receiving an hint from Sir Robert Walpole, that, though ordered by the house of commons, it never would be so, he returned home without perfecting his institution. The commerce of these islands consists chiefly in timber and provisions, in ships, and a small quantity of tobacco.

CONCLUSION.

The History of the Jews resumed.

ALTHOUGH while tracing the history of the world to our own days, we have, since the destruction of their city and the dispersion of their nation, lost sight of those prominent instruments of God's moral government of the earth, the people of Israel; the story of mankind cannot be completely told without taking at least concise notice of them in their state of dispersion. Neither, indeed, without this would there be duely pointed out to the reader the accurate correspondenee of their fortunes with the Divine declaration, "This

people have I formed for myself, and they shall shew forth my praise," or the admirable accomplishment of these predictions, "The children of Israel shall abide many days without a king, and without a prince, and without a sacrifice, and without an image, and without an ephod, and without Teraphim." And "I will make a full end of all the nations whither I have driven thee: but I will not make a full end of thee, but correct thee in measure; yet will I not leave thee wholly unpunished." To resume then the tale of this peculiar people without further preface. After being treated during the sovereignty of the Flavian family with all the jealous severity exercised on an hardly conquered people, in the reign of the Roman emperour Nerva, the Jews were permitted to form something like a centre of ecclesiastical union, by the appointment of a head of the fathers, or a patriarch, in the town of Tiberias, where, and in two other towns of Judæa, Jamnia, and Lydda, considerable numbers of the Jews had gathered themselves together. The authority of this officer was fully established in the reign of Adrian. Under it were placed the chiefs of the various synagogues and schools in the west, and he had different officers to carry his decisions, and regulate matters under him; and even a tribute was collected for his support, until the emperour Julian abolished it. This dignity was hereditary, and continued in the same family for thirteen generations; when in the year four hundred and twenty-nine, the emperour Theodosius put an end to it. The academy of Tiberias, over which the patriarch seems personally to have presided, became famous for its learned members, and particularly for Judah the saint, who in the second century compiled the Mishna, a treatise containing the laws and traditions of the Jews, and the opinions and sayings of their ancient doctors and wise men. The furious insurrections of this people in the reigns of Trajan and Adrian, and their sanguinary consequences have before been mentioned. In the reigns of Severus and Caracalla, they at first met with harsh treatment, but were afterwards favoured by each of these emperours. R. Jochanan, compiler of the Gemarrah or Comment on the Mishna, which together with that forms the Jerusalem Talmud, or the system of religion and morals of the Jews, became chief of the academy of Tiberias, in the year two

hundred and twenty-five. In the east, the academy of Babylon received its first patriarch in the beginning of the third century. Here was composed the Talmud of Babylon, by R. Ase and his sons, the former being a learned disciple of R. Jochanan above mentioned; but the abridgment of this work by Maimonides is preferable to the work itself. Under Constantine the Jews lived peaceably, with but little exception, both in the east and in the west; but in the former they excited a persecution against the Christians. Their insolence to these last, brought on them some severities from Constans. Julian gave them encouragement to raise their spirits; but Heaven interposed to obviate his re-building their temple. After this being for several reigns treated with no harshness, the indulgence shewn them encouraged them to such acts of insolence, that Theodosius the younger, was obliged to use some severity to repress them. While, on the other hand, the Christians persecuted them so as to render the imperial interposition necessary for their protection: and about this period the presents made to the converts from Judaism, tempted a great many Jews to feign themselves believers, and receive baptism repeatedly at different places. In the mean time the abolished dignity of the patriarchs was succeeded by that of the primates, but this was inferior to the former in both honour and authority. From the Vandals who broke into the western empire, the Jews experienced unexpected moderation. In the east, during part of the fifth and sixth centuries, they suffered great persecution, and a great apostacy took place. In the beginning of the seventh century many of them became followers of Mahomet; but at length, the generality not imitating the example, hostilities took place between the impostor and them; in which, after much bloodshed, they were compelled to become tributary to him. It does not appear that the situation of the Jews in Persia was rendered worse by the conquest of that country by the Saracens. Nay, they were soon permitted not only to enjoy full liberty as to religion, but to open academies; and equal indulgence was shewn them under the Ommiades in Egypt and Syria; but under the Roman emperours at the same period they were not suffered to rest in equal tranquillity. The emperour Justinian restrained them from celebrating the passover

agreeably to their own computation, and followed up this foolish step by depriving them of several privileges, and those of Africa entirely of the exercise of their religion. The discontent which these measures excited in the Jews broke out in insurrections. In Palæstine many joined one Julian, who feigned himself the Messiah, and great slaughter they at first made of the Christians; but their leader being put to death, they were suppressed. Twenty-five years later a similar disturbance occurred at Cæsarea, in which great numbers of Christians were massacred, and their churches demolished; but this insurrection was so severely punished, that the Jews for a long time refrained from injuring the Christians, except by those in Italy joining the Goths: for which, however, they paid so severely, that for the next two reigns they remained quiet. But under Phocas they made a sanguinary insurrection at Antioch, and exercised horrid cruelties on the Christians, and especially on the bishop, their treatment of whom is too shocking to be detailed. With considerable difficulty were the insurgents at length suppressed, and not slightly punished. Under the emperour Heraclius they were again banished from Jerusalem, and by the suggestions of the same emperour, persecutions were raised against them in Spain, nor did their situation in France long continue much better; yet in the seventh century they had an academy at Lunel in Languedoc, which became celebrated for its learned members. If we look to the state of the Jews in the east, during the eighth and the following century, no particular disturbance was given them; but their academies flourished, and they enjoyed all their ancient privileges. But in the ninth century some of the chalifs became their enemies. By Matavel or Motawakel, they were obliged to distinguish themselves by leathern girdles, and to ride on only asses or mules, with iron stirrups. In the mean time in Europe, Leo Isauricus proved himself their violent adversary, and they opposed his severity, as well as that of his more successfull opponents, the image worshippers, by dissimulation; but his two next successors were favourable to them. In Spain, a Jew named Serenus, declared himself the Messiah, and drew great numbers with him into Judæa; yet in the former country the sciences then flourished among the Jews. Charlemagne treated them

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with lenity, as did Lewis the Debonnair. Under Charles the Bald they were less left at their ease. During the tenth and eleventh centuries, the Jews in the east are said to have been in a flourishing condition, especially in respect to learning, and the number of their doctors. It proved however but a short-lived glory; partly through their own feuds, and partly through the sanguinary bigotry of the crusaders. By the union of these calamities were occasioned the total downfall of their academies, and the expulsion of the nation from that part of the east, whence they migrated into different parts of Europe. Previous to this event the Jews had been so numerous in this region, that in one city alone near Babylon, were reckoned nine hundred thousand of them. At this period it is, that most authors place the total extinction of the dignity of the princes of the captivity. In Spain the wars between the Saracens and Christians gave the Jews such respite, that their schools got into a flourishing condition; but the unguarded zeal of a rabbi towards the middle of the eleventh century, excited the jealousy of the Moorish king of Granada, and induced him to persecute the nation very fiercely. The Spanish monarchs became at that time favourably inclined to them, yet could not prevent their being butchered by the crusading fanatics. While in Spain the schools produced a number of learned men, in France the harvest was less; among the few who distinguished themselves was the celebrated R. Gersham. In the latter end of the eleventh century they were flourishing in Hungary, and no less so in Germany and Bohemia; yet the march of the crusaders through some cities of Germany gave occasion to a most nefarious slaughter of them. And in the crusade which followed at the distance of half a century, vast multitudes were slain by the fanatics, or driven to destroy themselves. In the east during the twelfth century, their state appears to be much ameliorated. During the same century they experienced protection from the popes in Italy, and their academies in that country flourished greatly. In Spain they were equally powerfull, through the influence of one of their nation, who became prime minister to Alphonso the eighth, and that of an handsome Jewess, of whom that monarch became enamoured. In France they fared not so well. After several of them had been

punished on a charge of murder, Philip Augustus banished them, confiscating their property, so that they were reduced to misery so great that numbers sunk under it; but he soon recalled them; when their prosperity causing them to become numerous and insolent, they, it is said, crucified a youth, on which the French king caused eighty of them to be burnt alive. So numerous were those in England grown in the reign of Henry the second, that their burying ground in London was insufficient for their dead; but in the reign of Richard the first, they drew on themselves, by a liberty which they foolishly took, the resentment of the populace, first in the metropolis, and then in the country, under the effects of which they suffered for some months. During this century flourished the celebrated Aben Ezra, one of the most learned men of his age and nation, and admired even by the Christians for his judicious explanations of the sacred books. The great Maimonides already noticed flourished in this century likewise; his rejection of many of the Talmudic decisions raised him numerous enemies; but he found likewise supporters not a few, and among them the great Joseph Kimchi; his son also, David Kimchi, a better scholar than his father, flourished in the same century. Another famed rabbi of it was Solomon Jarchi, a native of Champagne. Some Jews too in this century enjoyed very high posts in the courts of various princes, and some commanded armies with applause. Nor was the twelfth century unproductive of false Christs. The first appeared among the French, and was by them put to death with some of his nation. A second appeared in Persia, and soon came to an end; but of these insignificant, though impious pretenders, it is not worth while to notice all; but the case of an Arabian in the kingdom of Fez, who offered his claim to a very fair trial, should be mentioned. Having told the king that if he ordered his head to be cut off, he would see him immediately rise again; he was taken at his word, and his imposture demonstrated. Yet absurd as these pretensions were, not only were many Jews deluded by them, but occasion was afforded for the exercise of great severities against, and perpetration of great slaughters of, that people. The next sufferings which the Jews of the east underwent, arose from the avarice as well as the jealousy of

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a very zealous Mahometan; Nesser Ledinillah, chalif of Bagdad, who openly persecuting them, obliged all who would not become Mahometans to leave the Babylonish dominions; on which part removed, and part accepted his terms. Though Judæa was now infested with the wars between the crusaders and the Saracens, the Jews still had there synagogues and learned rabbies, among whom was the famous cabalist, Ramban, who had retired thither from Spain. In Egypt, from the disturbed state of the country they fared but ill. The Jews about Babylon, as well as those dispersed farther eastward, suffered much from the invasion of the Tartars, though they afterwards gained tranquillity. In the Grecian empire they seem to have enjoyed tranquillity during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries; but in the western regions they were no less oppressed, than they were numerous and wealthy. In Spain the bishop of Toledo stirred up the populace to plunder their houses and synagogues; and such havock did the crusaders make among them, that this has been considered as one of the four severest persecutions which the Jews have suffered; but the worst of their disasters was occasioned about the beginning of the fourteenth century by the irruption of a gang of enthusiastick shepherds, by whom whatever Jews refused baptism were put to death. A pestilence which arose added to their miseries, by occasioning an accusation that they had caused the waters to be poisoned, and of those whom the king had thrown into gaol he caused fifteen thousand to be burnt alive, because they would not be baptized. Another insurrection against the Jews in Toledo drove some to the most desperate murders of themselves and their families, to avoid the cruelties of their persecutors. In the reign of Henry the third of Castile, the people were exasperated against them by Martin, archdeacon of Astigi, and the fire once kindled spread to the massacring of them in several provinces of Spain. The son of the monarch just mentioned proved as cruel to them as his father, they were deprived of even the necessaries of life, and obliged to wear a debasing badge of distinction; and in Arragon their vexations and prosecutions on account of taxes, reduced them to the lowest degree of misery. France was not more favourable to them. St. Lewis only forbade his subjects

to borrow of them; but the duke of Brittany had a law passed, by which it was enacted, that he who should kill a Jew, should be guiltless; yet in the south of France the Jews found means to maintain themselves. Though in a persecution raised against them at paris, and then spreading into the provinces, above two thousand who refused baptism were tortured to death; and at length St. Lewis banished them from his dominions. In the next reign they were recalled on account of their being usefull in trade; but they were afterwards banished in great numbers by Philip the Fair. Edward the first of England was induced to banish them from all his continental dominions. When exiled by Philip the Fair, they were permitted to take with them only their clothes, and money sufficient to carry them out of the kingdom; by which means, while some reached Germany, great numbers perished by the way. They were, however, recalled eight years after by his successor Lewis, for replenishing his coffers, and he consequently exacted great sums of money from them. They next suffered from an accusation of having poisoned the wells in France and Germany, and were massacred after a manner which cannot be read without horrour. At length appeared against them an edict of perpetual banishment from the French dominions. But during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, they in Italy found favour from the popes; and in the kingdom of Naples they were very numerous; yet at Trani many were butchered in consequence of a charge made against one of them by a monk. Into England the Jews were invited by William the Conqueror, and in the reign of Stephen and Henry the second, they were fleeced under no very credible charges; and John after extorting from them all he could by torture, banished them: yet we find Henry the third treating them with severity and striving to convert them. For he founded in the present Chancery Lane, a seminary for the Jewish converts, and the king's house, in which they were maintained, stood where the Rolls now stands. Henry having repeatedly fleeced them until they could pay no more, sold them like cattle, to his brother Richard, for eight thousand marks; and by his son Edward, they were finally expelled the kingdom, and returned not to it until the days of Cromwell. In Germany, during the

thirteenth and fourteenth centuries the Jews were repeatedly accused of enormous crimes, and under those accusations were massacred by the populace in several cities; still Germany produced during these centuries several learned rabbies. They flourished no less in Lithuania during the thirteenth century; but towards the latter end of it, their internal disputes between the Caraites and Talmudites arose to a great height. And these were followed by fresh persecutions in different towns of Germany, in which many of this wretched people were burnt to death. In the fourteenth century they were banished from Hungary, and in various parts of Germany such persecutions were raised against them, as induced them to stand on their defence and likewise to retaliate, which only irritated their enemies, and led to a most cruel destruction of them by fire as well as the sword. In Bohemia they underwent the same fate: and from Germany they were at length banished by an imperial edict. In Spain during the fifteenth century, boast was made of many converts from Judaism, but the insincerity of no small portion of them became in time apparent, and the inquisition burnt two thousand of the relapsed, and at length Ferdinand and Isabella issued an edict by which all who would not embrace Christianity were obliged to leave Spain, and the whole number of the banished is said to have amounted to six, if not eight hundred thousand persons, and the miseries which numbers of them subsequently suffered by famine, sickness, and the barbarity of those into whose hands they were obliged to throw themselves, beggars description. But to a good part of them the policy of John the second king of Portugal opened a refuge in that country, though on hard conditions; yet his son banished them with many circumstances of cruelty. Thus from Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, were these people banished; yet in the two last kingdoms great numbers remained under the name of Christians and the mask of zealous Catholicks, and whose descendants, though admitted into offices ecclesiastical as well as civil, and having risen to high posts, are said still to be Jews in their hearts; neither did they by the profession of Christianity overcome the prejudices of the people against them, since they continued to blame and persecute them for every public calamity;* as in the

A. D. 1492.

beginning of the seventeenth century a Dominican, at the head of a great multitude, found a pretence for plundering and massacring between four and five thousand of them. Neither ought it to be left unnoticed, as to those who are by the inquisition sentenced for apostacy to be delivered over to the secular arm, that the hypocritical piety of that court gives a solemn charge, that their blood should not be shed, and therefore they are burnt alive. As to the Jews in the A. D. 1412. east, Ishmael, sophi of Persia, treated those in his dominions with great severity; but his distant successor, Abbas the second, by advice of A. D. 1666. his council, issued an order for butchering them unless they became Mahometans without exception of age or sex, and a three years massacre ensued, so that in five provinces, in which they had gained very great wealth, not one Jew remained: yet the same shah afterwards restored to them the free exercise of their religion. But those at Ispahan have been represented as very poor; they pay a tax to the sovereign, and are obliged to wear a distinguishing badge. Bagdad, though its inhabitants be decreased to fifteen thousand, has in it a good number of Jews. In Armenia they are said to live quietly under the protection of the Porte. They are numerous in Media, and have spread themselves as far as the foot of Mount Caucasus; but though they thus appear to be very numerous in the east, they are very poor and ignorant, having neither commerce nor correspondence with their brethren in the west. In Judæa itself, but few Jews settle. The most noted city they inhabit is Sephet or Sapheta in Galilee, not many miles from Bethsaida; there they have an academy much resorted to. In Jerusalem are reckoned only about an hundred families. In Syria the Jews are much more numerous and flourishing than in Judæa. At Damascus they have always had their synagogues and learned men. At Aleppo they are no less numerous, have stately synagogues, and are enriched by trade. It was in this city that an impostor named Zabathai Tzevi, about the year sixteen hundred and seventy-five, pretended to be the Messiah, but after deceiving great numbers, he was by order of the sultan first imprisoned, and then put to death. When he was nearly forgotten, another wretch, named Daniel Israel, pretended that he was still alive, and imposed on a great number of Jews, but was at length banished, and

his end is not known. In Ethiopia, as among a people allied to them in religion and customs, and who boast of being descended from the same stock, they live more peaceably; and when the Saracens inundated that country, they fled for refuge into Abyssinia, where they were kindly received, and are said to be yet very numerous, and employed in commerce. In Egypt they were numerous in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and many of them very rich; but their number is since much decreased, having settlements only at Cairo and some of the maritime towns, while they are obliged in the country to travel disguised, to avoid the insults of the common people. Most other known parts of Africa not only protect, but encourage the Jews. But of all other countries the Turkish dominions have the greatest numbers, and at Constantinople, above all other places, they are favoured, and universally employed. On the whole there is hardly any considerable city or town in the Ottoman empire in which there are not some of them, though much oppressed by the sultan's officers. Their situation in Europe during the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries, must next be reviewed. In Italy, pope John the twenty-third raised a persecution against them; but Nicholas the second protected them, and put a stop to it. In the city of Trent, another persecution was excited against them, and spread itself in the territories of Venice; but that politick government soon put an end to it; while from Trent they were banished. Alexander the sixth both received those who were banished from Spain and Portugal, and so favoured them on their arrival in Italy, that great numbers resorted thither; yet those who went into the kingdom of Naples were severely treated by the inquisitors, and then banished by the vice-roy. Pope Paul the third carried his kindness to the Jews even to partiality; but Julius the third had all the gemarrahs in Italy destroyed: yet under Paul the fourth they fared still worse, for he hated them, obliged them to sell their lands, and their men to distinguish themselves by yellow hats, and their women by yellow hoods, and to have their quarter shut up every night; a measure practised in different cities in Italy on account of their numbers. Pius the fifth, still more severe against them, after charging them with various crimes, banished them from every part of

his dominions except Rome and Ancona; but Sixtus the fifth acknowledging the profit he reaped from them, revoked all the bulls and edicts against their settling in the ecclesiastical state. On the contrary, Clement the eighth confirmed the bull of their exile, only adding Avignon to the cities in which they were permitted to reside. As to the other parts of Italy, in the state of Venice they are tolerated, and are numerous and flourishing in its capital, where they have printed much. At Imola was a synagogue, another at Modena, and at Mantua the same, together with an academy, which became famous, and in most of the cities of Italy they have generally supported themselves. At Rome they were thought to amount to twelve or fifteen thousand; they had nine synagogues and an academy, among the professors of which, about the latter end of the seventeenth century, was the famous David Kimchi. Innocent the eleventh, while he gave them several marks of his favour, took considerable pains to promote their conversion, but with little real success. At Turin they live more quietly than in most places of Italy, being indulged with full liberty of conscience. During the last three centuries preceding the period of this work, the Jews of Germany and the more northern regions were very numerous, though much poorer than those of Italy, and worse treated by the priests and the populace. The council of Basil made a severe decree against them, and Lewis the tenth of Bavaria banished them from his dominions. In Mecklenburg thirty of them were burnt; and from Nuremburg A. D. 1492. they were all banished seven years after: an example which was not long after followed by the bishop of Cologne. From the Reformation the Jews have reaped the benefit of deliverance from the prosecutions so frequently raised against them by accusations of crucifying children, and stealing and piercing consecrated wafers; stories which have now lost their credit. About the beginning of the sixteenth century, the Jews were banished from the city of Mersburgh, where they had been very long settled; but the emperor Ferdinand the first protected them; in several cities of the empire they had synagogues and academies, as well as in Vienna. In Poland they had not only liberty and tranquillity, but great privileges, and in its capital, Cracow, they had a synagogue, academy, house of judgment, and a great

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assembly. In the Ukraine a great number of Jews dwelt in high credit, and with a fair reputation in their dealings; and were suffered to be, in point of admission to employments, on an equality with the natives. In Bohemia, where they had been settled ever since the tenth century, they in the sixteenth met with several reverses, but were at length re-settled in that kingdom, in the capital of which they had a synagogue and academy. The Jews in Hungary, were greatly decreased towards the end of the sixteenth century, by the harsh treatment which they experienced from the emperour Rodolphus. In Moravia, they suffered a severe persecution; but for some other ill-treatment which they underwent in Germany, they were well recompensed by being permitted to settle in the dominions of the duke of Brunswick; and on the whole, towards the end of the sixteenth century, there were but few places in Germany where they were not allowed to trade; and since that they seem to have seen the most happy time which they have enjoyed since their dispersion. Poland is considered as a nursery of learned rabbies, and thither the Jews send their youth to study the rites of their religion. The city of Hamburgh is, from the number of Jews living there, called the Lesser Jerusalem; though their synagogue is at Altona; and at Hamburgh no small number have been converted to Christianity. Though under severe restriction in Hungary, they in sixteen hundred and fifty preferred that kingdom for holding the grand council, in which was to be debated the question, whether the Messiah was come? Here, in the plain of Ageda, about thirty leagues from Buda, three hundred of their most learned rabbies met, followed by a vast multitude of other Jews, and determined by a majority that the Messiah was not yet come: after which decision, they agreed on these three points:—That he would appear as a great conquerour, and deliver them from all foreign yoke; that he would alter nothing in the Mosaic religion; and that he was to be born of a virgin. The congress had lasted six days when some ecclesiastics sent from Rome appeared in it, and by the doctrines they vented, threw the assembly into confusion, when nothing was to be heard but a tumultuous outcry of "No Christ! no Godman! no intercession of saints! no worship of images! no prayers to the virgin!" and thus they parted

for the day. On the next they met only to agree on holding another council three years after in Syria. It is farther stated, that some of the Jewish doctors owned themselves not a little shaken by what passed, and expressed a desire to converse with some protestant divines. About ten years after this they were in great credit at Vienna, then banished, and then recalled; and since they have been not only tolerated in that city, but admitted to several high posts. A. D. 1660. They are equally numerous and flourishing in most other large cities of the Austrian empire. In Holland they are said to have more liberty, and be more wealthy, than in any other part of the world. They are of two sects, one from Germany, the other from Spain and Portugal; and these sects heartily hate each other. One of their best teachers, R. Menasse, came into England in the time of Cromwell, and obtained permission for his countrymen to settle here. A. D. 1656. But the most remarkable of all the Jews of Amsterdam, was the author of a new system of atheism, Spinosa, who was excommunicated by his own countrymen, and died at the Hague, in the year sixteen hundred and seventy-seven. In this last mentioned city they are as numerous as at Amsterdam, and live in the greatest luxury and the most sumptuous edifices. In England they are like those of Holland, commonly distinguished into German and Portuguese, and have each their respective synagogues, schools, &c. but no academy. They are here much more conversible than in other countries. Neither while the sons of Israel have in Europe increased so greatly in number and in wealth, have they failed to penetrate into regions of the globe the most opposite; for we are assured, that they have synagogues in China, and we hear of them even in America.

From this brief statement of what has befallen the Jews during their dispersion, on the mind of the reader will be more deeply impressed the testimony which the accomplishment of prophecy hath through every age of the world borne to revelation. Behold this peculiar people in accurate correspondence with the words of Moses and of the other prophets, and of the Lord of those prophets, scattered among all people, from one end of the earth unto the other end of the earth! Reflect how they have been made a sign, a proverb, and a by-word among all nations whither they have been led! How

their blood has been shed like water on every side of Jerusalem, and their bones have been scattered, as when one heweth and cleaveth wood upon the earth! Mark how, when their God was angry with them, the Gentiles helped forward the affliction; and see, if there be any sorrow like their sorrow, wherewith the Lord hath afflicted them in the day of his fierce anger! For how many centuries found they no ease among the nations! How their life has hung in doubt before them! How have they feared day and night, and had none assurance of their life! Yet behold them after a period of suffering so protracted, not yet utterly destroyed, but in such a situation as to be capable, on repentance and humiliation before their God and His Christ, of being restored to the land which the Lord gave unto their fathers! Behold them surviving in such multitudes, that were the Lord pleased to gather them together, they would, after this figurative resurrection, form an exceeding great army! And let it be recollected, that the certain infliction of that with which He menaced them, is a pledge of the no less certain accomplishment of the promises which He hath given for their consolation. "That He will gather them out of the countries whither He hath scattered them, give them the land of Israel, and put a new spirit within them, so thatt hey shall be His people, and He will be their God." Neither let the reader overlook that which is of more immediate concern to ourselves, that if the justice of the Lord hath so severely visited the sins of the people called by His name, will He not in like measure visit the sins of the Gentiles? If He hath so signally punished the former for having rejected His gospel, will He suffer the latter to escape for not obeying it? If He hath not spared the natural branches, will He spare those which have been grafted in? Or, have we not the most cogent reason for expecting, that He will in due time wreak on the world at large that vengeance, which He has so openly denounced by his prophets? Or, since the divine commission of these has been already demonstrated by the soundest of all proofs, the accomplishment of their words respecting days past, can men in common sense be justified in not preparing for that which they have so expressly warned us is yet to come on the inhabitants of this globe? The present circumstances of these, all converging to one point, the production of the last earthly

scene noted in the Scripture of Truth, do all but actually call upon us to prepare for that great Revolution which we are admonished shall put an end to the kingdoms of this world, and in the most impressive tones warn us against permitting ourselves to be enveloped in that cloud of spiritual darkness, which will render the revelation of the Divine Judge an event not expected by the generality of mankind. By the notice which has in the preceding pages been taken of the progress of the dispensation which will be thus consummated, an attempt has been made so to impress the reader's mind with the reality of it, that he may be awake to that which the Allmighty Governour of the world is about to bring to pass; and the statement now made of this Fact on the sure warrant of holy writ, will not improperly close a work in which the history of mankind is reviewed, as connected with the moral government of the world.

Δοξα Τῳ Θεῳ.

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